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AN ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE OF

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THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1871.

THE STUDY OF NATURAL SCIENCE.

Science made easy, is commonly just no science at all. When, in order to assist digestion, you weaken your food down to a water gruel and tapioca standard, you may say, "How easily it sits upon my stomach!"—but you feel no tingle of the blood through your veins, no rush of warmth to your finger ends, no strength in your muscles. If you wish to develop your body and prepare for work, you will lay siege to a round of beef, and draw your parallels about plates full of bread and potatoes. So with the mind. When your ideas begin to jostle against each other; when the new comer—the new thought that is trying to work its way into your cranium—rakes and scrapes against the sides of your brain until your head aches, then be assured there is a struggle going on that will make you a nobler man or woman. It is friction and wear that keeps everything smooth and bright. Old fogies need not say, "Yes, but friction wears out too!" So it does, but better wear than rust. You cannot rub your mind with oil and chamois skin and lay it away to keep, as you do your silver ware or knives and forks. Friction and rust are the two alternatives.

I think, in forming an education, spelling, reading, writing, grammar and arithmetic are indispensible; but immediately after these in importance come philosophy, chemistry, botany, astronomy, geology and physiology. Without an intimate acquaintance with these, no education is complete; with it, one is well fitted for practical life. The ideas of our best educators have changed in this respect within a single decade of years. Then, a map or two, and perchance a black-board and a globe, coustituted the whole paraphernalia of a school-room. Now, costly apparatus is essential to explain every principle in science. Then, philosophy and chemistry were voted a bore by all students, and these classes were simply endured by our old-fogy teachers. But with the introduction of illustrations and experiments, there has been a most terrific shaking among the dry bones of science. Those old skeleton theories are made life-like and real. The ancient ghosts of philosophy and chemistry, that haunted the dreams of our childhood and tormented us day by day, have now become real flesh and blood, and dwell among us as pleasant, cheerful companions. The hour of recitation becomes an hour of communion with nature and

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her laws; and in her presence all is beauty and sublimity. On the one hand is the observer, before whom is spread the great realm of the universe, "boundless in extent, infinite in variety, indescribable in beauty, endless in beneficence, and ever admirable in the simplicity and harmony of its laws." On the other, is the young intellect—whose earliest trait is curiosity—which asks numberless questions, pries into the reasons of things and seeks to find out their causes as if by spontaneous promptings of instinct. The study of nature is thus the most congenial employment for the opening mind, and its purest source of pleasure. Every fact learned becomes a key to another; each progressive step opens a new avenue of thought; each truth acquired becomes a new base of operations; unthought-of wonders cluster on every hand; the soul expands with each acquisition; the more it acquires, the more eager is the desire to learn, while each advance multiplies the sources of delight instead of diminishing them.

I do not deny the importance of the study of the dead languages, but I prefer the living language of God—those voices of nature which were unaffected by the confusion of Babel. Do you study the mathematics for discipline of mind? Take the sublime truths of philosophy, and its reasoning will work out in your mind patient, persevering habits of thought. Do you study the languages to develop your imagination and taste? Go out beneath the starlit canopy of heaven; gaze upon that "grand army" of God, the countless legions of worlds He marches in review before you the live-long night; and the grand and glorious truths of astronomy shall expand your mind, purify your taste, elevate your thoughts, and lead them not from, but up through, nature to nature's God. Do you weary of the dull routine of study? Here is one department where earnest pursuit is so congenial to the affections and tastes of the mind, as to be no irksome task, but a pastime—a perpetual feast; where you will study as no school master could make you, attracted to the task, as you will be, by the very love of it. Again, nearly all the study of advanced scholarship must be laid aside as soon as you leave school. How many who read this, and who are not teaching these branches, remember anything beyond the *hic, hæc, hoc,* of their Latin grammar, or can dig up a single Greek root, or demonstrate the first proposition of Euclid? This forgetfulness is perfectly natural and entirely universal. With the rush of *real* life, all the useless lumber of *school* life is swept away. Yet the discipline, the real end and object of all these studies, is retained. Now, natural science give this same discipline, and in addition stores the mind with knowledge that will be of value in all future time—knowledge that will be applied and tested, and examined through life. You study chemistry; the girl applies it every time she cooks; the boy in all his farm work, from composting his worn-out land to making vinegar for his mother's pickles. Chemistry becomes a household word. At the table, in the garden, in the shop, it reveals mysteries, solves doubts and gives endless food for thought. You study botany, and every flower by the way brings back the memory and tests the value of your former instruction. You study astronomy, and as you walk the streets, the heavens above speak to you "a various language."

In one other respect I think the natural sciences excel all other branches except mathematics. In all your investigations you are watching for, and marking the traces of the great Philosopher Himself. You notice how He

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works, and in an humble and simple way, yet in all honesty, you try to imitate Him and His methods. I take my retort and acids, and I form a little oxygen gas; I only feebly imitate that great Chemist who made that ocean of oxygen that sweeps around our globe, from pole to equator. As I comply with His methods, I succeed; as I depart from them, I fail. Hourly, in these studies, we commune with nature in her mysterious operations—but what is she but another name for God Himself! I say it reverently, yet truthfully, that the great I AM is present in all these experiments and investigations, and as I grasp the idea, that which before seemed mean and commonplace, is immediately exalted and ennobled into something altogether grand and divine. Your ministers open the Bible and expound to you its contents. In my laboratory I open another volume written by the same Being, and my students, day after day, read its pages, and catch with certainty and joy His footprints gleaming on the sands of time. The languages are of this earth, and their diversity is a proof of our fall, but the natural sciences reach out into space and take hold of all those worlds that sweep in endless cycles through yonder sky. They are, in no small sense, a part of God himself; and as we leave this world, as I humbly believe, we shall continue these studies, not separately as now, but all as one, having no longer to use simple apparatus such as we here contrive, but, entering into the ideas of a nobler Philosopher and Chemist than we, shall be led into His great laboratory of the Universe to study, to wonder, and to worship.

J. DORMAN STEELE.

ADVANTAGES OF CLASS RECITATION.

Not unfrequently one will meet parents who "would prefer a private tutor for their children if they could afford it:" they send their children to school, and thus allow them to come in "contact with corrupting influences," simply because of their poverty. These people speak of schools—even the most select ones—as mere make-shifts whereby an inferior quality of education can be obtained at cheaper rates. The best plan would be to have the teacher devote his whole time to one pupil; by this means they seem to think that pupil would gain much faster. "In a class each pupil gets only a small portion of the teacher's attention; he would improve proportionally could he have all the time of the teacher."

This view of the art of instruction has not been sufficiently refuted, otherwise it would not be so prevalent. For I find it not only in this palpable shape here described, but in far subtler and more dangerous forms even among our teachers and educational men. Who has not heard of schools wherein pupils come to the teacher individually after school and "make up" recitations that they have "missed" through one cause or another? The practice is very common in our schools, and is to a certain extent justifiable. But it has a pernicious phase, and this will best appear after a brief discussion of the points to be gained in a class-recitation.

It must be confessed that poor teachers do not possess the skill to manage the powerful instrument which a class furnishes. They are like unskilful captains who do not know how to use their companies as single masses—they hear each pupil recite by himself, forgetful of the rest of the class. After each one

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has "had his turn" the recitation is done. The captain would act like the bad teacher, were he to send one man at a time against the battery in front. How to combine and how to produce a united result far surpassing anything individual is the problem not only of pedagogy and war, but of all human labor—it is the problem of life. How can each individual reap the ripe product of the united endeavors of all? How can each ride through the world on the shoulders of all? This sounds paradoxical enough, but it is no paradox, it is the most serious of all problems, and it has the most successful of all solutions. To name them? Mention only the division-of-labor system in society, wherein each works in his specialty, and by bargain and sale disposes of its products; then, with the universal solvent of property—that is, money—he supplies whatever want he may have. All are working for his money: each for all and all for each. The partaking of each in the labors of all extends more beautifully into the realm of thought and ideas. Here one does not have to part with anything in order to gain the costliest of treasures—stop! he must part with his time: he must use his best moments if he would enter into the possession and enjoyment of human learning. But truth loses nothing by transfer: he who gives a thought loses nothing, but gains rather in clearness by communicating it. Each individual has it in his power to master the thought of the deepest thinkers that have lived. The thoughts of all help each. Is it not true than that "each may ride on the shoulders of all?" In this wonderful combination which we name civilization there is an alchemy which secures this miraculous result. The circular movements of the social organism takes away the mite which each individual contributes to the common fund, and offers him in turn his choice of all that is furnished by the rest. The best is the participation in the thought of the world.

This long digression and seemingly impertinent discussion of the great question that underlies life, has been introduced solely for the purpose of suggesting the probability that something good—nay, perhaps the very best thing in pedagogy—is to be found in that principle of combination whose instrument is the CLASS. Indeed it cannot seem strange, after duly considering the general dependence of all desirable things upon combination, that the same principle should re-appear in education. Let us then approach the subject anew, and endeavor to seize some of its salient features.

The good *captain*—the good *teacher*, I mean—knows how to manipulate his class as a *whole*. He knows how to bring every part of it to the support of every other part; how to help each individual by means of the insights of his fellows.

The good teacher that I speak of here, does not waste very much of his time in lecturing to his pupils on the theme of his lesson. He sets them to searching each for himself in preparing the lesson. Hence, when the class comes to recitation he has his whole time to compare and bring together results, and need not take up time in merely communicating information.

The first object of his recitation is to draw out each pupil's own view of the subject matter of the lesson. Accordingly, as one after another recites, our teacher probes beneath the mere first statements for the more comprehensive phases which should lie in the pupil's mind if he understands what he is reciting. By a few searching questions the pupil is brought up against some phase of his lesson that his thoughts had not reached. Now begins the real work of

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the recitation: this pupil shall now supplement or perfect his own views by those of others. The teacher rapidly calls out from a dozen other members of the class, all eager to add their statements, just what is needed to correct the one-sided character of the recitation of the first pupil. It will always happen, in getting at this result, that several new phases—not even in the mind of the teacher at the moment—are elicited, all tending to clear up and amplify the exposition.

The teacher is well aware that by drawing out from the different members of the class before him these statements and corrections he is accomplishing far more for them than his own statements and corrections, could do. Not what he does directly, but what he gets the pupils to do, is of value. There are two aspects of this which deserve special note:

1. The statement of an idea in a pupil's own words is apt to be better fitted to the capacity of comprehension which his fellows possess, and therefore to arouse more vivid ideas in their minds. The necessary crudeness and narrowness of such ideas get corrected by the variation of statement which is obtained from the different members of the class. Each pupil sees several phases that entirely escaped him in the course of his own investigation, and even the particular view that he seized, is made much clearer by the discussion.

2. The pupil is aroused and stimulated to a new method of study on the next lesson. He has obtained a peep through the lenses of other minds, and cannot fail to remember these different points of view in preparing a new lesson. It is, moreover, a practical collision of one intellect with another, and acumen is sharpened and habits of the closest attention are engendered.

If we cast a glance upon the other form of instruction we shall find all these advantages lacking. By what means can the teacher make up for the want of that powerful stimulus to activity which the presence of enthusiastic class-mates gives to the pupil? How can the teacher so adapt his own explanations and corrections to the mind of his pupil as to produce the same enlightening results as the re-statements of his class-mates do? Finally, by what means can the teacher arouse himself to that height of thought which the presence of a class of eager pupils excites in him? One pupil, pulling one way, is nothing to a score or more with different points of view—they take in the whole horizon, and the teacher must ascend to the most comprehensive platform in order to be equal to the occasion.

Those private-tutor educators who would look for superior instruction from the private individual tuition of the teacher certainly mistake the nature of true education. Self-activity, power for independent research, acute, critical insight—how can these be obtained apart from contact with one's fellow-men striving toward the same goal? There can be no doubt that such people are misled into the belief that cramming, or one-sided capricious insights are better than these qualities.

The educator who has looked widely over the field does not need to be told that just here lies the most important point in pedagogy. The initiation of the youth into the great secret of combination with his fellow-men—where can it be done so well as in the school? The school should help each struggling boy or girl to ascend above his idiosyncrasy and achieve the universal forms of activity which will make the free man or woman. It is clear that with the close personal relation of the private tutor, the chances are against that emancipation of individuality which the school

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secures. The privately educated youth is apt to be non-sympathetic, and to be uncertain and hesitating in his dealing with men. He has not learned by early contact with youth of his own age how to suppress what is merely subjective and peculiar to himself, and how to square his views with what is objective and universal. Hence, he lacks directive power among his fellow-men, and this is the most serious defect in the culture of life. He must borrow directive power from others!

Such an education is a preparation for a misanthropic, unhappy life.

But I am told of numerous examples of men of great note who were educated by private tutors. Yes; I find, however, that it was such only in name, but that in spite of it they were really educated by their contact with numerous and superior men, and that their isolation during school-days furnished the occasion for embarrassment of one sort or another during their whole career. Their success was in spite of such training and not by means of it.

A word more, while on this subject, upon the much decried system of text-book instruction. Have we not seen how the good teacher would develop in his pupils the most rapid mental independence? He would teach him how to pursue his investigations on any topic by sifting to the very bottom the statements made in the book. Under the good teacher a pupil would learn to compare one assertion with another, and one man's view with another; to verify his ideas by consulting different authorities; to gain a comprehensive insight by exhausting the sources of information on a given subject. Original investigation should not precede but follow a mastery of what has already been accomplished. No one in his senses would recommend a young man to spend his time endeavoring to make discoveries in electricity or chemistry before he had made himself acquainted with the present developments in those provinces.

How to study—this is what the good teacher teaches, and he can do this in no other way so well as by properly conducting class-recitation.

WM. T. HARRIS.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

III.

OF THE COPULA (CONTINUED).

"The tree falls" represents an involuntary exercise of power in the tree, producing the attribute represented by the attributive "falls," and this attribute exists in the tree so long only as the conditions exist, bringing into action the power producing it; but the exercise of the powers sustaining existence and their attributes is incessant, otherwise existence and the attributes of existence would cease. This attribute producing power, whether in or out of the thing, the reality or the unreality represented by the subject of a proposition is not the copula. The copula is a power in a word called the attributive. It is in the attributive, not in the attribute. It is the property of the speaker, a subtle spirit in his mind which at will he infuses into words, and by which he is enabled to represent to others whatever he knows or fancies has taken place, is taking place, or will take place, either in his own mind or in the mind of others, or in the external world; or whatever has existed, exists, or will exist with the actual or fancied attributes of every

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manner of existence. By it he affirms the existence or non-existence of things, and that any properties are or are not in things. By it he questions affirmatively or negatively, commands, exhorts, entreats, solicits, begs, sets forth hypotheses and conditions. It is the leading and ruling power in all languages. It is the exclusive property of human beings. It is not in things nor in the attributes of things, but in the words representing the attributes of things at the will of the speaker.

Whatever word the copula enters becomes thereby a verb. It elevates such words above the subjects to which they belong. It is predicating and proclaiming to be paramount. The copula in the attributive is its spirit, making it paramount to whatever it belongs. A verb is an attributive containing a copula, or conversely, a verb is a copula clothed with an attributive. The modes and tenses and voices of the verb, are only so many modifications of the copula.

OF THE TENSE OR TIME OF THE VERB.

The verb in some of its forms denotes time, while adjective and preposition are destitute of this property. The adjective and verb are both attributives representing properties belonging to something, having in themselves connecting powers showing their relation to the words to which they belong. The "white" gives notice that there is a "white" something, the mind remaining in expectancy until the word be spoken. Its connecting power gives notice that it qualifies, modifies or belongs to some word, expectation continuing till the word expected is heard. The tone of the voice may impart to it its connecting power. However it may be imparted, it is in the adjective and preposition without regard to time.

Time is an unbroken succession of instants. The present instant is the present time, and every instant preceding the present instant belongs to past time, and every coming instant belongs to future time. This unbroken succession of instants is divided into natural and artificial periods. Natural as a day, a year, a moon. Artificial as a minute, an hour, a week, a month, a century, by multiplying or dividing natural periods.

Attributives having a copula will often be represented as existing in the time of such periods, and will take a form showing their co-existence with such periods. Sometimes the verb will refer only to the unbroken succession of instants, present, past or future, and sometimes it will put on a form showing its relation to the time of another verb.

The power sustaining existence is in all things. Its exercise is involuntary on their part. The speaker, by the attributive and copula of the verb "to be," is able to show that this power is, has been, or will be, in exercise; and since things exist in time and then cease, they do so in natural and artificial periods; in the unbroken succession of instants, and in the time of other verbs; hence time is an ingredient in verbs expressing mere existence. The verb "to be" is an attributive containing a copula, and being used to express the time in which a thing exists, is also used to identify the time of an attributive not expressing time. As "The child is, was, has been, had been, will be good;" predicating "good of child" as co-existing at the time identified by the verb, affirming the existence of and proclaiming that the attributive "good" is paramount to the subject child. A verb divested of number, person, assertion, command, is still a predicated attributive containing a copula and proclaiming its own supremacy above its subject. It is characteristic of verbs to clothe themselves in forms expressing time, and the various modifications of the copula.

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OF THE MODE OF THE VERB.

The modes of the verb are modifications of the copula, and the copula, being the property of the speaker, can be moulded to his use, so as to realize to the hearer both the attribute and the exercise of the power producing it; and in other cases so as to realize to the hearer that the attribute exists in the subject, without regarding the power or manner of its production. In either case it is the speaker, writer, fabricator, fashioner of language moulding the copula to serve his purposes. In the infinitive mode the copula renders the attributive paramount to its subject, predicating it without assertion or interrogation or any of the various forms of command. In the indicative mode the copula is so modified, as to enable the speaker to affirm the attributive of the subject, and also to question, or ask, or interrogate if the attributive belongs to the subject. Interrogation may be by intonation of the voice, as well as by both intonation and the arrangement or addition of words. In the subjunctive mode, the speaker so modifies the copula as to enable him to connect the attributive to the subject, so as to form a subproposition subordinate to some paramount proposition, involving the indecision, uncertainty, legitimately and properly flowing from such subordination.

THE POTENTIAL MODE (SO-CALLED).

The verbs "may, can, must, might, could, would or should," are verbs in the indictative mode modifying the copulas of verbs put immediately after them in the infinite mode. The infinitives following these verbs do not require the particle "to" to precede them; because these verbs never of themselves govern nouns. In some measure they nearly or quite express what the copula alone imparts in some languages. Grammarians call them auxiliaries, they are nevertheless ruling verbs. In the conditional mode the copula is so modified, as to enable the speaker to suppose the attributive to belong to the subject, and so to state the consequences flowing from the hypothesis. In the imperative mode he so moulds the copula as to command, exhort, entreat, invite, solicit, permit or beg the subject to put on the attributive. It is the various modifications of the copula which form the modes of the verb. The copula is invisible, never seen. It is known by the effect it produces on words spoken or written, in which it manifests its power and presence. It has no existence separate from the attributive it permeates. It is a power converting into verbs every word it enters, and so, becoming thereby the life, the spirit, the essence of the verb. It is the chain that links and binds together words into thoughts. Without it there can be no thinking, no reasoning, nothing but unpredicated ideas. Its presence and absence distinguishes man from the irrationals. It struggles to penetrate incongenial words unused to its presence, in the speech of children and foreigners. Under strong impulse or haste not brooking delay, it enters unusual and incongenial words, as, "quick! quick!" for "be quick." "Peace! no more! not another word!" is more effective than "Hold your peace! Say no more. Speak not another word." It is the attributive of the verb we see and hear. It is the copula we perceive.

The interjection is an imperfectly formed verb, which the copula strives to enter. Some interjections are verbs in the imperative mode. (Of the participle hereafter as part or form of the verb.)

OF THE MORAL BEARING OF PROPOSITIONS.

A proposition being the union of the subject with the predicate, may be simple or complex, grammatical or logical.

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Propositions affirming or denying anything connect themselves with our moral nature, so that some truth is verified or falsified; or falsehood is affirmed or denied. Whatever number of sub-attributives may be connected, or whatever number of sub-propositions may be formed, the direct question of veracity is not involved until the affirming power in a paramount proposition is used. Our moral nature is still held in expectancy, in suspense, waits for the affirmation or denial. All the connected ideas and sub-propositions, are mere preparations, whereby the moral sense is wrought into expectancy of some truth. Every paramount affirming proposition involves questions of truth and falsehood. All language, at each step, appeals directly to the moral sense of truthfulness.

OF THE PARTICIPLE.

Participles are forms of the verb designed to express sub-propositions. In English they sometimes express the sub-junctive mode of other languages. Their copulas are so modified as to show their subordinate relation to other and higher words and propositions. For distinction their copulas may be termed sub-copular, indicating their function. They may be modified by some of the forms of the verb "to be," so as to predicate principal propositions as, "he was writing a letter, and it was well written."

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

II.

The duties of the people in regard to education was treated in a late number of The Review. We shall now consider the duties of school officers:

In order to make the schools efficient, a system of inspection must be established; and this inspection must be thorough and comprehensive. Without supervision the schools will become worthless, and the time of the children and the money of the people will be uselessly squandered. We have in most of the States a State Superintendent, County Superintendent, County and Township Boards, and, in each district, a Board of Trustees.

It is very important that in each school district a system of local inspection be established, because local authorities are able, when active, to discover better than any stranger can possibly do, the peculiar wants and requirements of their localities, as well as the real character of their teachers, and because a system of local supervision provides a continual check upon the teacher; but as these local supervisors have other and more pressing duties devolving upon them, and as many of them are deeply engaged in agricultural pursuits, and are very liable to neglect visiting the schools, it is necessary that in every well governed State, where the Government takes an interest in the improvement of the people, there should be a central inspection of all the schools which are supported and directed by the Government. If the Government has not the facility for examining every school, it can have no assurance that the seeds of future rebellion and civil discord are not being sown broadcast. Unless persons capable of judging of the merits or demerits of schools are chosen to watch over them, they are sure to become demoralized, and the education to be a sham and a mockery. This is true in regard to many of our

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country schools at the present time. The State Superintendent should make himself felt in the remotest district in the State, by a systematic and rigid system of inspection through the County Superintendents. The Superintendent of the county should know the character of every school in the county, the methods of instruction, and the progress of the scholars. Since the general supervision of all the schools devolves on the State Superintendent, it is evident that he cannot give much attention to any individual school. His time is chiefly occupied in devising plans for promoting the interests of education in general; and since the County Superintendent can visit each school only at long intervals, it becomes necessary to be very careful in the selection of the Township Boards and the District Trustees.

There is no more important office within the gift of the people than this, and the utmost care should be used in bestowing it. None but educated men, who have large experience and liberal views, should be selected. If narrow-minded, bigoted, ignorant, conceited men have the control of public instruction, the interests of education must suffer. Teachers of similar character will be chosen, and the schools, under such supervision and instruction, become a curse to a district, instead of a blessing. "A bad school is worse than no school." In many places the cause of education is ruined by *political* or *sectarian* strife. No political demagogue or sectarian bigot should be permitted to lay hands on the time-honored institution of public instruction. The duties of the School Committees, when selected, are:

First. To provide a school-room for all the children of proper age in the district.

Second. To supply the school-room with all the black-boards, books, maps, charts, globes, and apparatus necessary for imparting instruction.

Third. To keep the school-building in good repair, well warmed and well ventilated.

Fourth. To see that the play-grounds of the children are planted with shade-trees and kept in good condition.

Fifth. To provide for the prompt payment of the teacher's salary.

Sixth. To assist the teacher, to protect him when unjustly attacked, and to encourage him in his work.

Seventh. To visit the school frequently, in order to observe the modes of discipline and instruction and the progress of the children.

The supervision should be strict, the examination of the schools thorough, but always in a spirit of kindness to the teacher. (Let the teacher always feel that the Trustee or Committee man is a true friend.) If the Committee find methods in teaching or practices in discipline that they do not approve, or if the results are not satisfactory, let them speak out plainly and honestly to the teacher in private, and if he do not amend his faults, then let him be discharged. But never censure the teacher in public and retain him in the service. Nothing can be more damaging to the interests of a school than for a trustee or school officer to circulate reports injurious to the teacher. This is frequently done by ignorant, self-conceited men, who wish to cover up their own lack of knowledge by finding fault with others. The trustees, chosen from the different trades and professions in life, are often without any practical knowledge of teaching, and often have but little experience in matters of education, consequently they are unable to judge of school work. They have a vague and indistinct idea of the perfection to be attained, and usually the less they know, the more they expect the teachers and pupils to accomplish. They have never trod the thorny

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path of learning and are not prepared to make allowance for the difficulties that beset both teacher and pupils. They look only for results in teaching without considering the tedious and toilsome steps by which these are to be attained; and if these results do not come up to some standard of their own they are declared to be unsatisfactory. If children fail to pronounce all the words readily at sight, in reading; if they mis-spell words and are unable to define them; if they fail to solve all the problems in arithmatic, or blunder in a rule in grammar, the teacher is censured in public, and the parents become prejudiced against him. No one but a practical teacher can have any idea of the blighting effects which such statements have upon a school when they are circulated among the people and heard even by the children themselves, to say nothing of the depressing and degrading effect upon the teacher. We mean no disparagement to parents and trustees when we say that they are not always the best judges of school work. They are apt to expect too much. They are not always willing to give their children time to perform their allotted school duties in a thorough manner. The teacher is frequently assailed with the opinions and wishes of those parents, whose motto is, "Multa, non Multum;" who urge rapid progress and aim at arriving as soon as possible at the end of the child's pupilage. The trustees, in order to be popular with the people, and frequently to promote some pet theory of their own, join in the general hue and cry, and unless the teacher is possessed of pluck he must succumb to this pressure. Hence, he is tempted to go over much ground in a short time, to burden the child's mind with a heterogeneous mass, easily acquired and easily forgotten. The most important object of education, mental culture and discipline, is made subservient to rapid progress, and "Tutor vincit omnia" becomes an opiate to the pupil's mental faculties. In this way parents and directors frustrate the legitimate design of the teacher and render all his efforts useless. Children are encouraged to rely upon the teacher for aid in all their work, and education becomes simply a cramming process. In almost every district in the country there are "oracles," usually self-constituted. These wise individuals always know other people's business better than these know it themselves. And woe to the hapless teacher who refuses to be enlightened by them. There is no appeal from their decision in any question, and the more abstruse the problem for solution, whether in politics, education, or religion, the more certain they are to settle it forever. If an "oracle" is chosen for trustee, he will require the teacher to know exactly the ideas that children possess, and to use no words that have not corresponding symbols in the mind of the child; and no words must be used whose definitions are not clearly understood, &c. Beware of these hobby-riders. We will presume that the most intelligent and best educated men have been chosen as trustees, as the trust is the most important in the district. We respectfully urge them to visit the school frequently. Do not let it be known that a visit is intended; enter the school unannounced, without formality or ceremony, without any regard to day or hour, and then you can ascertain the real condition of the school. Go for the purpose of seeing just how it is conducted in every particular. Freely praise the pupils for whatever is worthy of commendation. Charles Lamb says: "Children are best fed on milk and praise." Select the children most distinguished for their diligence and good conduct and let your approval be seen by them. If any one

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particularly well-deserving is pointed out, let the gratified expression of countenance convey a silent message of delight to the heart of the deserving pupil. A recognition of the efforts of children has a powerful influence to confirm good resolutions and encourage future efforts. If the trustee finds occasion to express his disapprobation of the conduct of any of the pupils, it must be done in a very general manner, and with all due respect to the authority of the teacher, merely for the purpose of strengthening it; for the teacher has paramount authority in the school-room and even the parents of the children cannot dictate terms to him, much less a director. But a word of admonition fitly spoken will strengthen the teacher's authority and assist him to quiet unruly boys.

The trustee can at the same time study the teacher as well as the school, and learn whether he has control over himself, whether the little mistakes and errors of the pupils ruffle his temper and make him speak petulantly. He can ascertain whether he speaks in his ordinary tone of voice to the school, or whether he assumes a tone for the occasion; whether he is spending the most of his time in vain efforts to keep the room still; whether he is prompt and energetic in his work, or sleepy and listless; whether his manner in the school-room is kind and polite. He should also ascertain whether he is careful in keeping his school records, and particular in regard to the general order of the school. He should also seek for those things that pertain to the comfort and convenience of the teachers and the school; see whether the room is amply furnished with comfortable desks and seats, maps, globes, &c. He may be compelled to seat himself among mutilated benches (decorated by the carvings of a jack-knife), by robbing the teacher of the remains of what was once an arm-chair, in the midst of soil, both fixed and free, in a room where light and air are not admitted, but simply permitted. He may not discover any of those little conveniences that make the school comfortable, or those appliances that aid teacher and scholar so much in their work. Then let him inquire of the teacher just what is needed to promote the comfort and improvement of the school, and immediately make all the requisite repairs and additions until the school-room, instead of being a reproach to the district, shall assume an air of elegance and comfort; then all parties will be desirous to preserve it. Children do not intentionally mutilate and destroy good chairs or fine furniture, but they love to whittle pine shingles or old boards, whether found loose or nailed up into the firm desks or benches.

The preservation of property, however, is of much less value than the influence of order and neatness on the pupils' mind. A neat, convenient, and well supplied school-room will generally be filled with neat and well-behaved children.

In proportion to the increase of the comfort, convenience, and elegance of the school-room will be the decrease of the severer modes of punishment. A boy, when clothed with rags and filth, and surrounded by objects and persons just as foul as himself, cares but little for his conduct; but fancy him in a holiday suit, and place him in the midst of elegance, neatness and order, he will be far less disposed to behave badly.

It is the duty of the trustees to see that the children of the poor have the same attentions as the children of the rich. There are in every district some neglected little ones that require special care. The children of the affluent are well provided for at home, and know

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nothing of the hardships the children of the poor suffer; many are born to the inheritance of their ancestors—poverty and ignorance. The parents, being compelled to toil for daily food, take but little notice of their children; they cannot appreciate the power of education to elevate their families from their low condition. Thousands of unfortunate strangers—the down-trodden exiles of European tyranny—attend our common schools. While the parents are aliens, the children are born citizens of the Republic, and will have the rights of suffrage; hence, the characters formed by these children mould to a certain extent our social and civil institutions. Let the trustee, then, aid the teacher in protecting this class from the sneers and jeers of arrogance and thoughtlessness which abound in many schools.

Sec. 7 of the revised statutes of the State of Missouri declares that, "The local directors shall have power to manage and control the local interests and affairs in the sub-district, to contract with and hire *legally qualified* teachers, to specify the number of months taught, and the *amount of wages* per month," &c.

This clause gives the trustees exclusive control of the school and all that pertains to it. It is their duty to employ a *good teacher* and pay a *liberal salary*.

A small salary secures a teacher of small attainments. Without education or experience he begins his work. He shrinks from the critical eyes of his advanced pupils, who look through the thin places in his intellectual mantle; and he endeavors in vain to defeat their design by assuming false positions. He cannot have the confidence of the parents, because they know he is *cheap*, "hired at a bargain," to save five dollars a month to the district. It is this miserable parsimony—this wretched starveling policy—that fills so many of the schools with the crude babblings of ignorance and self-conceit. This practice of hiring *cheap teachers* not only ruins the cause of education, but brings reproach upon the profession of teaching. These teachers never can have a deep and abiding sense of the responsibility resting upon them. They do not *feel* that they are co-workers with God in the creation of man, that in this life the process of creation is continued, that the immortal germ planted in the child must be trained and cultivated until prepared for paradise.

So much has been said and written on this subject that the eyes of the community are beginning to open; and in some places a teacher can now make as much by intellectual labor, after spending years and money preparing himself, as a farm-hand can who feeds the cattle and pigs.

The time will come when the hearts of the people will be warmed with the dictates of justice to the teacher, when they will feel that all have a right to demand the best instruction and to pay the best price for it; then will the millions of acres now sold to pay the price of blood produce the means to educate the peoples that will one day draw the bread of life from its generous bosom. No longer will the highest glories of this land be conferred alone on him who wields the sword in war, or upon him who holds his auditors entranced in legislative halls, or upon the merchant prince who adds to his own and his country's wealth; but the *creators* of the *country's intelligence, morality* and *happiness*, the men and women who form the common mind, who fashion and mould the very pillows of all our civil and social institutions will be remembered and rewarded. Then will the teacher's profession be sought and adopted by the best tutors of the land.

Z. G. WILLSON.

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LEARNING LATIN.

If it is hard for an individual to break with his past and all that makes up his conscious character, such a course is still harder for a nation or a people. America has done much to free herself from the tyranny of the past, and, independently thereof, to shape her own future. While, in the shape of institutions and customs and vested rights, the past still lies heavy upon even the most advanced nations of the old world, America, claiming uninherited, messianic power, steps in between it and the future, and proclaims the rights of the living present. But the past is not so easily broken with. If it is forbidden to exert a living influence upon our civilization, it will reappear here and there in dead, untractable masses.

Nowhere is this more striking than in educational matters. It is here, if anywhere, that a people desirous of inaugurating a new order of things, have resolutely to battle with the past. The new ideas must be made prominent in the education of those who, in the future, are to be the bearers of the new civilization. The instruction that fitted men to be useful members of old societies, and that served to widen the distinction between different classes or castes, cannot be expected to contribute much to the formation of the members of a new society, based upon utterly different principles, and making it a cardinal point of faith to disown and reject class distinctions. Notwithstanding this, it will be found that there is much, both in the manner and in the matter of our American instruction, that is utterly at variance with the main ideas animating American life, and that even militates against them.

It seems a very *naive* question to ask: What is the aim of all education? And yet there are perhaps fewer instructors than might be supposed, who could render a clear and concise answer to it. If the question had reference to instruction such as American principles demand, the reply ought to be very easy. In other times and countries, the so-called higher education was coveted by, and imparted to, particular classes, not with any aim to culture or utility of any kind, but simply to widen social distinctions by the semblance of intellectual ones. It is a common saying in England, for example: "Latin and Greek ought to form part of the education of every gentleman. No one can be said to be educated who does not know Latin and Greek." Not that the ordinary English gentleman knows much Latin or Greek even in the most schoolboy sense of knowing, not to speak of any deeper literary or esthetic appreciation; but at least he has dragged himself through ten or fifteen years of so-called study over these languages, and can savor his conversation with snatches from the poets who have written in them. This is sufficient to give him a reputation for scholarship, "he has received a gentleman's education," and that is all that is necessary. He may be as ignorant as the beasts of the field about science, art, and even the geography of his own country—provided he knows where the "Derby" and other horse-races are run, and where the best sport is to be had—still he has "received a gentleman's education."

Now this may be all well in England, where the majority of gentlemen are of no use to themselves or anybody else; but American principles, institutions and convictions demand something very different. With us education means the development of a man's powers, with a view to the highest possible usefulness. Usefulness, not in any

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narrow, immediate, mercenary sense, but in the broad sense of being a benefit, by life, word, and action to his own and to succeeding times. He need not fill public offices, he need not cause his voice to be heard in the wrangle of party politics, he need not pay large taxes; in a thousand quiet ways, by advice and example, by plough or by pen, he may be useful to his race. Our education aims at making society wiser and better, by putting the individual in full possession of his powers and so making him wiser and better.

Now instruction contributes to education in three ways, and perhaps only three; 1st. By exercising and sharpening the mental powers; 2d. By imparting actual information; 3d. By opening the way to more extended fields of knowledge. It would seem plain enough that any subject which does not contribute to education in any of these ways ought to be unconditionally discarded, and that studies ought to be valued just in proportion to the number of these requisitions that they meet, and the degree in which they meet them. A study which at once sharpens the mental powers, imparts useful information, and opens the door to new studies is the most valuable of all, and is to be preferred to one that meets only one or two of these demands. Strange as it may seem, the least valuable studies are those that simply impart information. History, for example, when studied as a mere succession of events—reigns, battles, revolutions, &c.—is perhaps the least valuable study possible. Language taught as mere congeries of declensions, conjugations, &c., with a syntax depending upon arbitrary rules, is not very much better. History becomes at once valuable and interesting, when we see it to be a whole, striving, ever more and more consciously, to attain ends which ever grow clearer and clearer, and that every era records a victory of intelligence and a triumph of individual freedom. Language becomes an important and attractive study, when it is shown to be the logical expression of a consciousness that ever becomes clearer and more analytic. Every language embodies the mental history of the people who speak it, and only in this light has the study of languages any scientific worth.

In how far now does the study of Latin, as ordinarily pursued in America, meet the above demands? And first, how far does it tend to sharpen the mental faculties? We often hear it said that the intricacies of Latin grammar form an excellent mental gymnastic, and our teachers seem so much impressed with this idea that they make the study of Latin little more than a series of parsing lessons. It is unfortunate that the expression "mental gymnastic," like many others, is used without much meaning, being attached to it, else the absurdity of saying that Latin grammar was excellent as such, might at once become patent. What is generally meant is, that it is a puzzle on a large scale, and good for exercising ingenuity. The words composing a Latin sentence are looked upon as a series of picture blocks which some ingenious person long ago disarranged, and which boys and girls are now, recognising those that belong together by means of certain marks called inflections, to pick out and re-arrange so as to form something. This may for a while be good amusement, but after all it does in time grow tiresome. At best, it is not half so amusing as chess, drafts, or Chinese puzzles, and perhaps, on the whole, not much more beneficial. A real mental gymnastic is something that exercises the mind in making correct and rapid deductions from understood principles, and in re-

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cognizing the action of any principle however much it may be disguised by the action of others. Correct thinking is the only possible aim of true mental gymnastics.

It will generally be admitted that correct thinking is impossible in any subject whose principles are not understood. Now, how far are the principles of Latin understood as Latin is usually taught? Take even the simplest and commonest rules, and not only few pupils, but very few teachers will be able to give a reason for them. For example, the grammars tell us that "the direct object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative case." This may be true enough; but why? The definition of a transitive verb, as usually given, is a verb that takes its object in the accusative case. It is, of course, plain enough that, if a transitive verb is one that takes its object in the accusative case, a transitive verb takes its object in the accusative case. But why do one set of verbs take an object in the accusative case, and another set take one in the dative. Why do I say *Juvo te*, and *Subvenio tibi; Jubeo te*, and *Impero tibi?* Or, why do I say *Adhibeo hanc rem* and *Utor hac re?* Rules upon rules are laid down for such cases; but all such are merely dead matter, thrown mass-wise into the memory, to remain there undigested and indigestible. Instead of sharpening the mental faculties, they merely burden the memory. There is hardly a teacher but would deprecate the teaching of the Latin declensions according to scientific principles, notwithstanding that it would save labor and conduce to correct thinking. This has been very forcibly put by the Rev. Howard Crosby, a well-known Greek scholar. This gentleman, writing to the publishers of Morris' Greek Grammar—by-the-bye, an admirable work in every respect—says, (and the remarks will apply equally well to Morris' Latin Grammar):

"With a good teacher, or one fit to teach Greek at all, no better system than that of Mr. Morris' could be desired, wherewith to ground his pupils in the language, and give the student a healthy grasp from the start. But with lazy and ignorant teachers (whose name is legion), ten to one will shirk, and make pupils "learn lessons by heart." It is so easy to say, 'There, learn that page,' instead of going ahead of the boys and showing them the way. Hence, ten teachers out of eleven will reject it. You see I do *not* think the old methods *preferable*, but I think *lazy teachers* will prefer them."

Exactly, and so Latin accidence and syntax continue to be taught from books like Andrews' & Stoddards', or Harkness', or Allen's Latin Grammar, as mere masses of heterogeneous facts and arbitrary-seeming rules, which neither interest nor in any way benefit the pupil. With most teachers the ablative absolute remains the ablative absolute, though what that may mean no one ever has told us, and no one ever will tell us, inasmuch as the expression is self-contradictory. Most teachers are great upon the use of the subjunctive mood, but how many know or teach the principle that lies at the basis of it? Does the use of it ever appear to most pupils as other than purely arbitrary? And when the memory has been burdened with the rules respecting it, are they of any value whatsoever to those who never mean in their lives to write a Latin sentence. In days when it was customary and necessary to write Latin, it was of some value to teach the use of the subjunctive mood, even by disconnected rules; but with us, where few, even of our best scholars, could turn into Latin a page of Macaulay's History, without committing a multitude of solecisms and barbarisms, the

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case is very different. The question of gender is a great stumbling-block. Does not gender, as usually tanght, seem the most unreasonable thing in the world? Why is *pes* masculine, *manus* feminine, and *corpus* neuter? Few attempt to explain this, "it is mere waste of time;" and so rules upon rules are crowded into our Latin grammars, with lists of exceptions which it makes one's head dizzy to look at. To hear most teachers talk, it might be supposed that genders really were arbitrary. To how many did it ever occur that there are only four neuter nouns in the Latin language whose stems end with a mute consonant? Is that a matter of chance?

Arguments might be multiplied to show that Latin grammar, as we teach it, can hardly be of any value as a mental gymnastic, simply because we do not reduce it to its principles. To know a thing means to know it in its principles. To think a thing correctly, means to think it, as Aristotle would say, in the order of nature, from the principles downwards.

The second way in which a study is valuable is by imparting actual useful information. By useful is here meant, such as can be applied in the avocations of daily life. It is eminently right and proper to teach an engine-driver how to manage his engine, even although he may have no knowledge of the principles which guide the action of it. It is not necessary that every man who works a steam-engine should know the sciences of hydrostatics and pneumatics. He may earn his daily bread honestly without any such knowledge. So an acquaintance with the sciences of electricity and magnetism are not at all necessary to the manipulator of the electric telegraph. The knowledge of how to work a steam-engine or a telegraph is imparted, not with any view to mental improvement, but for a strictly practical purpose, and to this there appears to be no valid objection. But what useful purpose does a knowledge of the facts of Latin accidence and syntax serve? Is there any occupation or profession practised in America, other than that of a teacher of Latin, in which it is of any practical utility? The apothecary may call his drugs, and the botanist his plants, by barbarous, Latin-looking names, but it would be of no service to either to know Latin grammar. There are numerous law-terms pretending to be Latin, but most of them are unclassical, and are not taught in any Latin course ever heard of. One will look for a long time in a Latin lexicon before he finds out the meaning of *Quo warranto.* This point need not be further discussed, inasmuch as the practical utility attaching to the study of Latin is so evidently small that it has seldom been urged in its favor; in fact, the very inutility of it has by some been held up as a recommendation. It is well known that the Greeks denied the title education to anything that was learnt merely for a practical purpose—that is, to mere information, or, as a German would say, *Brodwissenschaften.*

The third advantage urged in favor of the study of Latin is that it opens up the way to broader fields of knowledge. We are not here discussing what, under certain circumstances, it might do—to that we shall return afterwards—we are now dealing simply with what it actually does under existing circumstances. Latin is said to pave the way—1st, to an acquaintance with the classical literature of Rome, and the literature of the early Latin church; 2d, to the study of the science of language and of philology in its wider sense; 3d, to a knowledge of the roots, and therefore of the primary meaning of the majority of the words forming the weft of our language; 4th, to an acquaintance with the

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Romance languages, French, Italian, &c. These, perhaps, include all the points that, in this respect, have been urged in its favor. Now, there can and need be no question that the study of Latin, if properly pursued, might do all that is here claimed for it, and that if it did so it would be an exceedingly valuable study. But does it, as a rule, accomplish any one of them?

First.—As to its opening the way to an acquaintance with the Latin classics. The most modest demand that can be made of a person who has studied a language is, that he shall be able to translate from it. There is not much likelihood of anyone's enjoying a Latin classic, unless he can read it with tolerable ease. There isn't much fun in Plantus, when his jokes have to be dug out of a lexicon. A joke, to be effectual, must come like a flash. Now. not to speak of those whose Latin course ends with the High School or Latin School, how many of those who enjoy the benefit of a full University curriculum, can, or, as a matter of fact, ever do, read a Latin work, after they leave the University? How many have ever read the real masterpieces of Latin literature? Comparatively speaking, the number of Latin works possessing real value, from a literary or artistic point of view, is very small, and most of what do exist are, to a great extent, copies of Greek works. There might be a very reasonable doubt entertained as to whether it would be worth while learning Latin at all for the sake of its literature. In this respect, German, French, Italian, and even Russian would be infinitely preferable. Dante or Moliere is, in a purely literary point of view, far superior to any author ancient Rome ever boasted of. Moreover, all Latin works of any value as literature have been frequently rendered into English, in which dress they are far more intelligible to ordinary Latin scholars than they are in the original. It is only the finished scholar, gifted with exquisite artistic taste, that finds unfeigned delight in the polished gems of Horace or Catullus. We should say, therefore, that the value of the study of Latin, as paving the way to an acquaintance with what is really valuable in Latin literature, is, in almost every case, zero.

Second.—As to its forming an introduction to the methods of the Science of Language and Philology in its broader sense. We shall show, hereafter, that the study of Latin might do this in a very eminent degree; but we affirm that, as at present pursued, it has rather a contrary tendency. So long, for example, as we make five declensions, and distinguish them by the termination of the genitive singular, or four conjugations and distinguish them by the vowel in the penult of the present infinitive active, we are not likely to make Latin much of a Propaedeutic to any science whatever. Though Latin is the oldest of the higher studies now pursued among us, it is, curiously enough, the most unscientifically conducted. Even Greek, in this respect, is far better managed. In it, we distinguish, in treating of declension and conjugation, nouns and verbs according ts their stems, without regard to the termination of the genitive or the form of the infinitive. In Latin, from time immemorial, there have been five declensions and four conjugations, and the makers of Latin Grammars seem to think that a sufficient reason why there should be just that number still, notwithstanding that Donaldson many years ago reduced them to their proper limits, in a work accessible to all American scholars. The failure, indeed, to introduce methods into the study of Latin Grammar is all the more unaccountable, that a knowledge of these

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methods is so easily attainable. You cannot, for example, run through any tolerable grammar of Latin, published of late years in Germany—and what classical scholar can now afford to be ignorant of German?—without finding a chapter on the Formation of Stems—a most essential part of the Science of Language;—and yet in most of our American Latin Grammars, stems are spoken of as if they were identical with roots, or are ignored altogether. Andrews and Stoddard tell us that "Every inflected word consists of two parts, a *root* and a *termination*. The root or crude form, is the part which is not changed by inflection." So it seems, *fugitiv* is the *root* of *fugitivus*. In what relation would *fug* stand to *fugitivus?* Is it the *short root*, as Dr. Spencer, the author of a recently published *Greek Praxis*, would say? The definition of *root* in Messrs. Allen's of *Manual Latin Grammar* is so *naive*, that we shall not quote it, for fear of being accused of garbling it. Seeing that our Latin Grammar have not got beyond the stage that such facts as these betray, it is hardly to be wondered at, if the study of Latin among us proves a barrier, rather than otherwise, to a scientific study of language. Ten times more beneficial than four or eight years given to cramming the contents of our ordinary Latin Grammars, would be one year spent in mastering, say, for example, March's *Comparative Grammar of the Anglo-Saxon Language*, a work worthy of the times.

Third.—As to its putting us in possession of the roots of the majority of the words in our own language. This seems a very specious argument in favor of the study of Latin, and yet it is a very illusory one. In the first place, the study of roots has nothing to do with the study of accidence or syntax, that is, of grammar as usually understood. In adopting into our language Latin words, whether directly or through the French, we have almost uniformly adopted *stems* shaven of all inflections, e.g. *content, condition,* etc. If, therefere, we were to study Latin simply for the purpose of becoming better acquainted with the etymology of our own language, our attention ought to be directed solely to the primary meaning of roots, and the principles of stem-formation—the very point ignored in our teaching of Latin at present. In the case of words coming to us through French, the principles of linguistic decay would have to be taught. But, admitting, as we do, the advantages of such a study, does it not seem almost a mockery to recommend it, so long as the etymology of the true English Language, that which forms nearly all the warp and very much of the woof of our speech, receives so little attention? Is it not ridculous to expect pupils to know the origin of *regicide, confabulate, indoctrinate,* who do not know the origin of *shall, ought, the, such, which, why, be, am, king, woman, wanton,* or anything of the history of the grammar of their own language? In this respect, likewise, one year spent over March's *Anglo-Saxon Grammar* would be worth any amount of Latin cramming.

Fourth.—As to the aid afforded by Latin in the study of the Romance languages. This advantage is much more apparent than real. Any one of the Romance languages has far more recognizable words in common with English than it has in common with Latin. French, for example, though little more than broken Latin, and capable of being turned word for word into Latin (barbarous enough, of course,) is, in every sense, a modern language, and he who learns it for practical purposes—and who learns French for any other?—will derive little assistance from Latin. Who

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would recognize in *Oui, hoc illud;* in *Je ne sais pas, Ego non scio passum;* in *dorenavant, de hora in ab ante;* in *Je n'aurai rien, Ego non habere habeo rem;* or in *aujourd'hui, ad illud diurnum de hodie?* We believe we do not exaggerate when we say that nine-tenths of all the French words whose Latin equivalents our ordinary Latin scholars will be able to recognize, occur also in English, and in it far more closely resemble the French words both in meaning and form. In almost every respect in which Latin syntax differs from English, the syntax of the Romance languages will be found to agree with the English.

To sum up. We have attempted to show that in all points by which the value of a study can be tested, Latin, as at present taught, is a failure. It neither is a good mental gymnastic, nor does it impart useful information, nor does it pave the way to other and wider fields of knowledge. Ought, then, the study of Latin to be discontinued in our schools and colleges? As it is at present conducted, we should answer unhesitatingly "Yes." In another article we shall attempt to show that the study of Latin may be conducted in such a manner as to meet each and all of the demands of a study of the first order. We shall also endeavor to show when and by whom it ought to be studied.

MISS YOUMANS' FIRST BOOK OF BOTANY.

[The following communication, called forth by Miss Beedy's article on Miss Youmans' valuable little work, is interesting, as coming from a lady who has devoted much attention to *Kindergarten*, and the education of young children. On these subjects she speaks in some measure *ex cathedra:*—Ed. Rev.]

In *The Western Educational Review* for October, 1870, there is an article upon Miss Youmans' "First Book of Botany," highly appreciative of its method, which, by the way, it does not recognize as that of Prof. Henslow, Cambridge, England; of whose application of it to the children of a neighboring factory village, and the happy results, Mr. Atkinson has given us an account, in the notes of his address at the opening of the Boston School of Technology. We were sorry to see that Miss Beedy casts some doubts on the practicability of using this method in the public education of the country, because we know that the thing Miss Youmans has in view is to give objectivity to the primary school culture, by making one science of observation accompany the science of calculation throughout the whole course of education.

It is desirable to give a balanced understanding, developed according to the organization of nature, by means of clear, sensuous impressions of the differences and resemblances of individual things, seen in the intimate connections made manifest in the growth, which is according to fixed laws, though to such various and harmonious effect. The primary education is excessively dry, consisting, as it does, merely of reading and writing and arithmetic. Since Warren Colburn, half a century ago, discovered the natural method of presenting numbers to the mind, and stimulating it to develop this abstract object of thought, by the Socratic method of questioning the child, and setting him to discover the relations of numerical quantities, first in concrete things, then in the depths of his own thought, arithmetic has become the favorite subject of study in American schools; and it is the secret of the great improvement that has taken place in them, for it has brought children's minds into relation with the real order of nature, and given an experimental sense of the substantiality of

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the immaterial mind. But there are a multitude, of children whose natures *starve* on mathematics, when these are not immediately applied to mechanical arts, or natural philosophy, as some sciences of matter are rather arbitrarily called. Childrens' senses are wide awake to forms and colors and beautiful combinations of these; and whether we regard their happiness and health, or their brilliancy of expression, and general elasticity of mind, we are bound to teach them to observe the generation of forms quite as much as to count and combine numbers. If schools are so arranged and governed that to introduce a scientific study of vegetation disarranges them, and breaks that external order, which is some people's ideal of a well-governed school, it condemns such schools, and there should be new plans made. For ourselves, we do not much value that order which is pressed on a school from without by the energy of an arbitrary teacher. It is too much like the "order which reigns in Warsaw," by means of crushing out all the liberty which is true life, or its indispensable condition.

The order we desire to see in the school is that which children are led to *create;* it is that mental order which arises, for instance, from studying Colburn's First Lessons, and which, as we believe, favors honesty and integrity of mind, as well as developes perseverance and connection of thought. And the science of botany, studied as Miss Youmans proposes, would create order in the imagination, besides enriching it; and produce elegance as well as continuity of thought, and stimulate to all the arts that make life worth the having, even though it should clutter up the school desks with dried leaves, and invade the *martinet* precision of teachers who forget that schools were made for the scholars, and not the scholars for the schools. To introduce Miss Youmans' plan for studying botany in our public schools would give them another impulse, as great as Colburn gave thirty years ago.

But, as we ourselves have said to Miss Youmans, this so-called primary education is not primary, and neither Colburn's Arithmetic nor Henslow's Botany is the first thing, but Froebel's Kindergarten, and Miss Youmans candidly acknowledged that so she had found it already. Children need an education before they are put to reading and writing even, and that is the assistance given by the Kindergarten methods, that "early development" which Miss Youmans so beautifully describes in the essays appended to her little volume, but which never takes place in perfection or harmony *unless* it is assisted. We must discipline childrens' activity to produce the first objects of their study. This is what Froebel proposes to do by the exercises through which he carries children between the years of three and seven, when he teaches them first to make transient forms symbolizing things, or making symmetrical beauty by the determinate order in which they are laid; and secondly, to produce things within their own sphere of fancy and affection, according to the great laws of organization, which are the same in nature and art, so far as their respective sources—the wisdom of God and the cultivated thought of man—correspond to each other. The analysis of their own productions and the examination of the materials prepare the scientific mind, give a good deal of concrete arithmetic and geometry, and the power of expressing their thoughts in appropriate and precise words, rich with the coloring of nature.

When this *earliest* education is generally diffused in the community, the so-called Primary schools will be able to

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teach reading and writing, and the science of calculation, and learn at least one science of observation, and take one-half the time they now take; the grammar schools will be proportionably efficient. To think nature's beauteous forms in nature's order, is education, and makes minds *creative.*

E. P. PEABODY.

Editors' Department.

THE REVIEW celebrates the first anniversary of its birth hopefully. That, during the past year, it has not been all that could have been desired, no one knows better than ourselves. We have labored under many difficulties, and could urge many excuses for our shortcomings, but as these would be comprehensible only to the few who are conversant with the editor's business, we omit them. We can affirm that under the circumstances, we have done our best, and our best we mean to do in the future. Our success, which has been beyond our expectations, shall not prevent us from laboring to win the right to expect more.

It will, perhaps, have been observed that in the later numbers of the REVIEW, there have been no selected articles; everything has been original. To this principle we mean to adhere strictly in the future, making exceptions only in favor of translated articles. The educational literature of Germany far excels that of any other country, both in quantity and quality; and it shall be our endeavor from time to time to lay before our readers, what we consider the most valuable articles and views from that source. Foreign views and intelligence generally on educational matters, as far as attainable and our space will permit, we shall study to present in a concise and comprehensive manner. Much may yet be learned in this respect from the old world.

As the REVIEW is not intended to be merely a local periodical, we shall give attention to local matters only in so far as they have a general and abiding interest. Articles of a vague character. articles of a one-sided, sectarian or dogmatic tendency, articles lauding the dignity of the teacher's profession, articles treating of such self-evident matters as the need of personal cleanliness and neatness on the part of teachers and pupils, all sentimental articles, and irrelevant and unpractical matters generally, we shall exclude, from whatever source they may emanate.

A prominent place in THE REVIEW will be occupied by book-reviews and notices. It is hardly necessary to say that, in a country where the use of text-books has become almost an abuse, and there is so much competition between publishers, it is highly desirable that all such works should be subjected to unsparing criticism by competent and impartial judges. We shall use every effort to secure the services of such persons for this department, and we invite all publishers of educational works to send us their new publications and editions as soon as they appear. We shall publish a list of all the books we receive, and such as we consider deserving of further notice shall receive the same at

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the earliest possible opportunity. Works relating to history, science, philosophy, art, &c., although not intended for school or college use, we shall be happy to notice. We have formed connections with foreign publishers, and shall obtain foreign educational works, which we shall also notice.

In conclusion, we would invite all persons who are interested in the causes of popular education and individual culture to aid us in founding a periodical, which shall be worthy of our educational advantages, of St. Louis, and of the *West*; which shall be something different from the ordinary educational journals, of which almost every State furnishes us with so many specimens.

THE Committee on Organization of our State University have, among other laudable recommendations, made one which we cannot refrain from noticing. They say "The study of our English language, with its grand and ennobling literature, must be provided for in the amplest manner, whatever other language, ancient or modern, is neglected." We imagine the committee do not here speak of the study of English in any narrow sense, but in the broad one of thorough scientific investigation. In this sense, the study of English must, to a large extent, be an historic one—that is, it must begin by inquiring into the affinities of the language, and the etymological and syntactical forms of its oldest accessible period. In other words, it must begin with Anglo-Saxon.

As admirable aids to this study, we would call attention to Prof. March's Anglo-Saxon *Grammar* and *Reader*, the latter of which contains a short grammar, very suitable for beginners. It is not improbable that in a short time a class will be opened in St. Louis, for the benefit of teachers and such other persons as may desire a closer acquaintance with the history and principles of their own language. We hope the State University will follow the recommendation of its committee, and diligently aid in the same cause.

THE *Atlantic* for January is a strong number, with bits of song from the three finest poets of New England, and Mr. Fields' very interesting reminiscences of Thackery. Senator Wilson, in his political article, says so forcibly some things in regard to the present needs of our country, that we cannot forbear to quote at length:

"The theory of popular education, as an essential element of free government, is by general consent admitted.

"The chief points of virtue and importance, in any practical discussion of the subject, pertain to the kind of education required, the best methods of its attainment, and some of the hindrances that lie in the way of that attainment. Here there is large room for inquiry and improvement. For, notwithstanding the admitted advancement of the cause of elementary education, there still remains a lamentable lack of men and women suitably educated for the various duties and dangers, responsibilities and emergencies, of actual life. Not only is there a signal failure in improving the privileges furnished at so much public and private cost, but wise observers find many who have enjoyed all the benefits of the schools,—even some who have become proficients in the various branches of study,—exhibiting grave defects in matters of practical experience. For with the advance of these public means of education there has been an increase of adverse influences from the many changes in the business and social habits of the people, so that what might have been fitted once for the necessities of the community and the times would fail now te meet them. The learning of books is, of course, essential; but that is not all which is requisite. There are practical lessons, not found in the arithmetic and algebra, the geography and grammar, which are to be learned now only outside of the schoolroom, but which should constitute an important part of the curriculum adopted within. Indeed, it is doubtless among the features of "the good time coming," that the education insisted on and furnished by both the common school and college shall lose something of its present scholastic

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form, and partake more largely of the practical element; where the intercourse between teacher and pupil shall involve something less of adherence to forms and positive systems, more regard to the individuality of each, and more freedom in its exercise.

"The education that is specially needed now embraces the whole of man's complex nature, and sends the individual forth into the community with the body and heart fitted for his work as well as his mind, with common sense to apply the abstract principles derived from text-books as well as the knowledge and discipline they are designed to afford. Of course much must be derived from the indirect influences exerted simultaneously and subsequently to the days of the school-room by home, its employments, associations and pleasures, by society, its provisions and demands, the necessities of a livelihood and the calls of business. "A good home," says Leigh Richmond, "is the best of schools." But it must be "good," and much of its value consists in the care and effort necessary to make it thus *good*. The church, too, and the lecture-room, the caucus, convention, and town-meeting, the farmers' club and the trades-union, the newspaper, the magazine, the review, must all contribute their share to produce what should be the grandest product of the ages, the American citizen; one who, reaping what others have sown, and gathering up the spoils which the centuries have laid at his feet, is called upon to meet the grave responsibility of conserving the interests and of shaping the destinies of the mightiest republic of ancient or modern days.

"Such substantially is the training and culture required by the exigencies of the present hour. Are the millions now clothed with the royal right of suffrage, and holding in their hands the sovereign power of this nation—the great body of American citizens—thus educated? Do they answer in any good degree this description? Do even the educated men of the country seem fully alive to the exigencies of the case? What measures are now in progress which seem to comprehend the situation, or are based upon a correct estimate of the perils that environ and confront? In a word, are the omens propitious?

"Napoleon said fifty years ago, that the great want of France was *mothers*, which was his method of saying that the French people needed the education of homes. But France did not heed this saying; and her late Emperor attributes her present troubles to frivolity and lack of principle in the people. A recent letter-writer thus puts the matter on record: "Throughout France, in 1830, the working class had begun to lose its self-respect, and to degenerate into the condition of serfs; morals and manners were almost impossible. Home life received a shock from which it has never recovered." And now France lies humble and bleeding, fallen at once from the position of the leading nation of Europe to that at least of a second rate power. Prussia saw that she needed an educated people to cope with surrounding powers, and she decreed that education should be not only compulsory, but military. The results are before the world.

"Enough, perhaps more than enough, has been said of the importance of education, and of the danger of its neglect; nor is it difficult to secure the general assent to what is said. The real difficulty is to inspire the people with a practical purpose promoting the cause of such education. The real question at issue is not, ought the present generation to be educated? but, shall it be educated? not, shall the next generation be educated? but shall this? not, shall the true idea of popular education be gradually worked into the American thought and purpose? but, shall it at once be accepted and reduced to practise? There are serious difficulties and hindrances that lie in the way of its practical adoption; shall these difficulties and hindrances be properly recognized and canvassed, and the necessary means adopted to remove or overcome them? These are the questions now in order before the American people."

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Reviews and Notices.

A TREATISE ON THE GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: Containing a complete system of Analysis and Parsing, progressively arranged. By T. R. Vickroy, A. M., President of Lebanon Valley College. pp., xxxvi and 230. St. Louis: *Hendricks & Chittenden.*

Let me notice the features of this work under the three following heads:

I. *Excellences.*

II. *Defects.*

III. *Indifferent Peculiarities.*

It will be more convenient for me to notice these things in the order in which they occur in the book, regardless of the nature of the subjects.

I. Excellences.

1. The treatise, as a whole, is pre-eminently calculated to excite and assist deep, philosophical thought. The author's method is very peculiar in almost every particular, and the peculiarities are generally of such a nature as to develop profitable thought.

2. The title of the book is most modest and carefully chosen.

3. In the preface, the author divides the science of written language into four distinct branches, viz:

(I.) *Lexicology*, which includes Phonology, Etymology and Orthograpy.

(II.) *Grammar*, which comprises Classification and Inflection of words, and their construction in sentences.

(III.) *Composition.*

(IV.) *Exegesis*, comprising Philology, Criticism and Hermeneutics.

In the treatise under review, therefore, he says nothing of orthography or prosody, nor of capital letters.

4. He says, moreover, in the preface:

"In determining the basis of this science, three things are to be considered, viz: (1.) the matter of thought; (2.) the thought itself; and (3.) the words used to represent thought. It is not the province of grammar to treat either the matter or the substance of thought, except as they are conditioning facts. * * * * * * * * * * As a child perceives objects, it learns the words by which they are designated. To teach it words without a knowledge of the things which they represent, would be cramming, a process, which, happily, is disappearing under our improved methods of instruction. A knowledge of divisions and subdivisions, of definitions and rules, will not make any one a grammarian. He must understand the principles and usages of the language, and must make them so much his own as to apply them whenever occasion requires. That which is artificial and arbitrary should find no place in a true system—only that which is natural and useful. The object of grammar is evidently to teach correct speaking and writing, which can be attained only by the practical application of the principles educed from a scientific development of the usages, tendencies and analogies of a language.

"This treatise is not designed as a primary book. In the author's opinion, no such work is necessary. Oral teaching should prevail at first, and be continued until the class becomes interested in the subject. What both teacher and pupil want is a *text-book* in which the principles of grammar are logically arranged and clearly defined; not a *hand-book* burdened with explanations which any live teacher should be able to give orally.

5. Mr. Vickroy would introduce grammar to beginners thus:—Teacher arranges upon his desk several objects, as a piece of crayon, a book, a ball, a bell, etc., and commences a dialogue as follows:

Teacher (holding up a book)—What is this?

James—A book.

Teacher—Write *book* on your slates. Now, where is the book?

Pupils—In your hand.

Teacher—What have you written on your slates?

John—The word book.

Teacher—Tell me the difference between what I hold in my hand and what you have written on your slates.

Pupils—You hold in your hand the book *itself*; the *name* is written on our slates.

This plan to be pursued throughout the outlines of grammar.

6. The verb has ten forms: Common, Progressive, Progresso-Passive, Emphatic, Interrogative, Solemn, Conditional, Potential, Imperative.

7. If we wish to distinguish persons having the same *title* we pluralize the *name*, as The Miss Kimports; if we wish to distinguish persons having the same *name* we pluralize the *title*, as The Misses Strickler.

8. Abstract numbers are singular; concrete, plural.

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9. A personal pronoun is a pronoun which shows the relation of an object to the speaker.

10. The more prominent *shades* of color are indicated by special words, as crimson, pink, purple, scarlet, etc.

Words descriptive of the *hues* of color are prefixed to the generic words, as *rose*-red, *pea*-green, *iron*-gray, etc.

Proper nouns are used to express peculiar shades, as magenta, solferino, etc.

11. "In the sentence, *Am I my brother's keeper?* *I* and *keeper* represent the same object, but are in different persons. So, also, *I* am *he*.

12. In the conjugation of the verb the author is very particular, and philosophically exact in each particular.

13. "A sentence is a mental act expressed in words."

Is it the *act* or the *expression* of the act?

14. The conjunctions are classified and sub-classified, with careful regard to philology.

15. Treatment of conjunctive pronouns is superior.

16. "Compound relative pronouns are used to introduce subject clauses, as, *What is thoroughly understood is easily described.* In this sentence, *What* is the subject of *is understood*, and the clause, *What is thoroughly understood* is the subject of *is described*." This method disposes of the compound relative naturally, and requires no *equivalent* in pa rsing.

17. Distinction of Protasis and Apodosis. E. g. "If thou hadst been here [Protasis], my brother would not have died [Apodosis].

Equal discrimination the author exhibits in the classification of all sentences, and of the structural elements of sentences.

II. Defects.

1. In the publisher's circular, it is claimed that, in the book, "sentences are disposed of without ellipses or equivalents." The fact is, a department of the grammar is particularly devoted to the art of disposing by equivalents; and the author provides for no other way of parsing the several classes of sentences there treated.

2. "*Number* shows how many objects a noun denotes."

"*Number* relates to the unity or plurality of the objects represented."

Both these expressions are awkward; and they are given as formal definitions of *number*.

3. Nouns ending in *ge*, *ce* and *se*, form their plurals by suffixing *es*. This is repeated several times in the book. He nowhere says that the final *e* of the singular is dropped in forming the plural.

4. "A verb is a word which asserts." "A verb is a word, or collocation of words, which expresses affirmation." He classes infinitives and participles with the verb, but denominates them neither modes nor forms of the verb, nor distinct parts of speech. He does not say exactly what they are, except infinitives and participles. He parses some of them as verbs, and some as verbal nouns.

5. "A transitive verb asserts an activity which affects or causes the object represented by its complement." "Some verbs have an immediate and a causative use." "*John teaches Henry*" he gives as an example of the causative use.

6. Author gives voice, mode, and tense, as the only properties of the verb dependent upon relation.

7. Has only three modes: indicative, subjunctive, and imperative. "The verb is in the indicative mode when it asserts a fact or an inquiry;" "in the subjunctive when it asserts something as existing only in thought;" "in the imperative when it asserts something as willed by the speaker."

8. "A copulative verb asserts the inherence of an attribute in the object represented by its subject." "The copula is that word by which something is affirmed of the object represented by the subject." His example is, "Chalk is white," marking *is* as the copula. What does *is* affirm of the "object denoted by the subject?" Does it assert "the inherence of an attribute in the object"?

9. "Tense shows the time of the assertion." Ambiguous.

10. Instead of classing verbs as regular and irregular, the author denominates those verbs "strong" which "form their preterite by changing or shortening the vowel of their root;" and those "weak" which form their preterite by suffixing *t*, *d*, or *ed*, the root-vowel being sometimes changed or shortened.

11. He divides the strong verbs into *eleven classes*.

12. "The common form of the verb is that which adds *s* in the present indicative, third person, sin gu lar."

13. "The present tense is formed from the root, *s* or *es* being suffixed in the third person, singular."

14. It is characteristic of the author's style to speak of *have* being 'combined' with the perfect participle, of the adjective being 'joined' to its noun, and of the preposition 'joining' its terms of relation.

15. He says that *each*, *every*, and *all*, are adjectives because they 'limit.'

16. He would call 'more holy' an adjective of

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the comparative degree, and 'most holy' one of the superlative. If *more* and *most* are adverbs, what is *holy?* Of what degree is it?

17. "An adverb is a word which expresses place, time, cause, manner, modality, or degree." *He is naturally a kind man:* what is 'naturally?'

18. "A preposition is a word which shows a relation between things and connects the words denoting the things so related." To be consistent with this, the idea denoted by the verb must be considered a 'thing.' *It is on the table*: does *on* show a relation between the thing denoted by *is* and that denoted by *table?*

19. The author has ten parts of speech: the last two are 'expletives' and 'intensives.'

20. "A noun is a word used as the name of what is known or thought about." A long definition; but, worse than this, like Pinneo and some other grammarians, he calls $, £, and such things nouns, as if they were words according to the definition.

21. He has *six* classes of nouns: proper, common, collective, material, abstract, verbal. None of these he considers sub-classes. He says, moreover, that material nouns represent special wholes, abstract nouns represent substantial parts, and verbal nouns causal parts!

22. "A verbal noun represents the result of an action: as, deed, growth, flight, bloom, dealing, mission, capture, amendment." Participial nouns are something else.

23. "Case is that property of a noun or pronoun which relates to the form it takes in view of its construction." What noun has an objective form different from the nominative?

24. "Conjugation is the inflection of a verb in order to form its preterite and past participle. There are two conjugations—the strong and the weak."

25. "Any word or collocation of words answering the questions of *what kind? how many?* or *whose?* is an adjective element." Not complete, for it does not include the definitives *the, this, that,* etc.

26. "Any word or collocation of words answering the questions *where? when? why?* or *how?* is an adverbial element." Not complete, for *thence* does not answer the question *where?* and in the sentence, *He came to sing, to sing* does not answer the question *why?* so much as the question *for what?* *She sang a great deal*: *a great deal* is a collocation of words performing an adverbial office, answering the question *how much?* rather than *where? when? why?* or *how?*

27. "A distributive adjective shows that the noun to which it is joined is taken in a general or indefinite sense: as, *a, any, all, every*; but in parsing he always calls *the* a distributive.

28. "*A*, in such phrases as *two dollars a day*, means for *each* or *any* day, and is used like the Latin *per*." Is not *a* used in its ordinary sense, and the preposition *for* omitted? Is it not an abbreviation of *two dollars* FOR *a day?*

29. "*Such* is joined to a noun representing objects of a kind previously known or mentioned:" not always '*previously*.' *Such a man as I am about to describe* would be an exception.

30. "The diminutive comparative is formed by suffixing *ish*, or by preposing *almost, rather, slightly, somewhat*, etc."

31. He compares the adjective *northern* in a list of irregular forms designed to be complete; but he omits the other points of the compass.

32. "Prepositions intimately connected with verbs, and having no noun or pronoun depending upon them are generally regarded as adverbs: as, he walks *about*, he fell *down*. But as they really change the meaning of the verb they form an essential part of it, and should be treated as separable particles, not as modifiers." Is not an object understood after the preposition in all such cases?

33. Now, on the 84th page of his treatise, the author begins to speak of 'governing words' without telling us what they are. His 11th general rule (of syntax) reads: "The quantitative complement is in the objective case, generally without a governing word: as, John wears his cloak coat *fashion*." This is a favorite specialty of the author's, apparently introduced for the purpose of avoiding the supply of ellipses. It seems to me to be very unphilological. On p. 213 he seems to regard such 'complements' as 'independent;' as, the noun *years* in the sentence, *He is six years old.*

34. Author gives us TWENTY-SEVEN classes of prepositions!

35. "A Verbal Adjective expresses a relation or mental affection; as, *kind, hungry, near*." Why such adjectives are called "verbal" we are not informed. Moreover, "the author thinks that all adjectives of the comparative and superlative degrees belong to this class!"

36. He then proceeds to give a tedious list of verbal adjectives, with the prepositions which should follow each; but the list is far from complete.

37. In his classification of sentences, we are treated to THIRTY-ONE subdivisions!

38. He calls *whatever, whichever*, etc., conjunctions on page 137, adjectives on page 51, and pronouns on page 140!

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39. Conjunctions are divided into SIXTEEN subclasses!

40. A chart of the classification of Connectives requires a whole page of fine print!

41. "He ate of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil." Mr. V. calls "*ate* a transito-partitive verb, having *of the tree*, etc. as its indirect objective element."

42. "This is an anecdote of Franklin's." Mr. V. parses and analyzes, as the equivalent of this, "This is an anecdote of Franklin's *relating*."

43. "Did he go? Yes." The author thus analyzes and parses: "This is a simple interrogative sentence, of which *he* is the subject, and *did go* is the predicate modified by the responsive particle *yes*. *Yes* is an intensive, and has no grammatical relation to the other words in the sentence." How can it modify a word to which it has no relation?

44. Mr. V., in an appendix, in ostensibly differing from Webster in his definition of *vowel* and *consonant*, says: "It is not the alphabetic letters which are vowels and consonants, but the sounds which are used in speech." No further reasoning is given us on the subject. The usage is to consider both the sounds and the characters representing them as vowels and consonants.

45. By this time, my readers must think that, if I have followed the order of topics adopted in the book, there is not much order about it. That's the way it seems to me. There is neither index nor analytical table of contents; and the subjects are so scattered through the book that I know not how to find any particular item.

46. Although the book-binder has done his duty, and the printer in some respects, the proof-reader seemed to have had his mind on orthography only, and forgotten copy and punctuation. In one paragraph, *censure* is printed for *escapes*, and *danger* for *censure*.

47. Lastly, Mr. V. finds use for all the technical terms ever invented in grammar, including the following: Progresso-passive; dead forms (in common use, as, *wharves* instead of *wharfs*); reciprocal pronouns; partitive pronouns; categorical; immediate and causative uses of verbs; appositive; adverbs of modality; simple and composite prepositions; postulate; hypothetical and modal propositions; protasis; apodosis; temporal and model clauses; transito-dative; transito-copulative; transito-partitive; inceptive; morphepology; preterite; multiplicatives, etc., etc., etc.

III. FEATURES DOUBTFUL OR INDIFFERENT.

Table of contents has a novel appearance; very peculiar way of wording definitions and statements of principles; has only three cases; but the personal onouns only exhibit case; three kinds of verbs; ransitive, intransitive, and copulative; only three modes, indicative, subjunctive, and imperative; "buck-rabbit" occurs three times, and "doe-rabbit" four times in the book; "somebody else's" is correct; *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, etc., he denominates "adjectival personal pronouns;" number is a property of adjectives; imperative mode has three persons; *as* is sometimes a pronoun, and *than* a preposition; and those parts of the verb which follow *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, in the potential forms, he denominates "infinitives."

Says he: Pronouns are universal nouns. Only one thing can be called the sun; only certain objects are white; but there is nothing which may not be *I*, and *you*, and *it*, alternately, as the point from which it is viewed changes. By considering such sentences as *It is I*, *I am he*, and, *It rains*, the true character of the pronoun is elicited. The affrighted disciples saw what they thought to be an apparition; but their Master spoke, calming their fears by his well-known tones, asserting that *that thing* which terrified them was himself. So, too, with the words, *I am he*. The Jews had inquired for the Messiah, who answered, 'I that speak to you am he.' Every effect must have a cause; and as it is not generally known to what to attribute the phenomena of rain, hail, snow, etc., we represent that indefinite something by the prononn *it*. The word pronoun means *for a noun;* and, hence, a pronoun is defined to be a word used instead of a noun. Substitution is not its characteristic quality. The use of a word determines the part of speech to which it belongs. Take, for instance, the sentences, *All men are mortal*, and, *Our all is at stake*. In the former sentence, *all* is an adjective; in the latter it is called a noun; but, as it means the whole, or everything, it is a universal noun, or pronoun. Such words as *somebody*, *something*, *everybody*, *everything*, *nothing*, etc., are pronouns in other languages.'

In the sentence, "Woe worth the day," the author parses *woe* as the subject, and *worth* as a transitive verb used only in the imperative, agreeing with its subject *woe*.

I will close by giving two specimens of the author's mode of analysis.

"Appoint to office such men as deserve public confidence." "This is a complex imperative sentence, of which the subject is the name of the person addressed, and *appoint*, etc., is the predicate, being complex, of which *appoint* is the basis, modified (1) by *to office*, an adverbial element of the second class, of which *to* is the connective, and *office* the objective part, and (2) by *such men as deserve public confidence*, an objective element of the first-class, being complex, of which *men* is the

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basis, modified (1) by *such*, an adjective element of the first-class, and (2) by the relative clause, *as deserves public confidence*, an adjective element of the third-class, of which *as* is the connective and subject, and *deserve public confidence* the predicate, being a complex, of which *deserve* is the basis, modified by *public confidence*, an objective element of the first-class, being complex, of which *confidence* is the basis, modified by *public*, an adjective element of the third [first?] class."

"I have more than I know what to do with." "This is a complex categorical proposition, of which *I* is the subject, and *have more*, etc., is the predicate, being complex, of which *have* is the basis, modified by *more than*, etc., an independent adverbial element of the first-class, being complex, of which *more* is the basis, modified by, *than I know what to do with*, an adverbial element of the second class, of which *than* is connective, and the substantive clause, *I know what to do with*, the complementary part, of which *I* is the subject, and *know what to do with* the predicate, being complex, of which *know* is the basis, modified by *what to do with*, an abridged objective element of the third class, of which the connective and subject are omitted, and the verb changed to the infinitive form, modified by *what*, a complementary element of the first-class."

EWING SUMMERS.

Dresden, Mo.

FIRST STEPS IN MUSIC. Nmubers I and II. By GEORGE B. LOOMIS. New York: *Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.*

The advent of these little works marks a new era in song books, and is a "step" in the right direction. They are destined to show that the study of vocal music is as easy and pleasant as reading or arithmetic, provided the lessons are so simple and progressive as to encourage, rather than discourage, the pupil. We teach reading by beginning with the primer; and it takes hundreds of lessons, running through six or seven books, to attain satisfactory results. There are a few "gifted" ones, who will learn music anyway, even without a teacher; but the majority of pupils will not learn to read music, *i. e.*, to sing *new* music, unassisted, without a somewhat lengthy and careful elementary drill. There is no "royal road" for learning music, and in this, as every other branch, the results obtained are in proportion to the means employed. There are very few, if any, who cannot perceive the distinctions in tones; as long or short, high or low, soft or hard; but to be able to sing a tune, where the intervals are constantly changing, and the notes are of many different lengths, requires that control of ear and voice, which can only be obtained by patient and persevering practice; and it is with just such tunes that our singing books are, with the exception of a few elementary lessons, almost entirely filled. How many writing books do pupils use before becoming accomplished penmen? How many columns of figures must they add before they can be trusted to post a ledger? "From nothing, nothing comes." Can pupils earn to sing by note? Yes. Can children of eight or ten years of age sing tunes *at sight?* Yes, easy ones. Will pupils, when they have gone through with this series of books, be *independent singers?* Yes, nearly all of them would be able to sing correctly any ordinary piece of music. Will it pay? Let us see. In our musical societies and volunteer choirs, probably not more than one-half are good readers of music; while even of those who sing and play well, only a small portion can learn a song, except as they first pick it out on a piano. Now, suppose that nine pupils out of ten, instead of perhaps one in a hundred, become independent singers during the next ten years. Will it then be found difficult to fill our choirs and singing societies with enthusiastic and accomplished singers? Better still, will not our family and social circles be prepared to enjoy music of a high order? If it is worth the while to have singing taught in our schools, and no one is so blind as to wish it otherwise, then let us make it a *study* as well as a recreation, and so teach it as to secure the most enduring results. With this statement of general principles let us now examine the "first steps."

The introductory remarks show that the author is a conscientious man, and not a mere book-maker. Tones, notes, measures, bars, counting and beating time, are clearly and beautifully brought out in the first six lessons, which complete the first chapter. We believe a careful study of these truly "model lessons" would be of service to teachers, even of the common branches. In fact the author has so thoroughly learned the Pestalozzian system of teaching, that all his lessons, if rightly given, will lead the pupils to think, reason, and decide for themselves; a better process surely, than trying to remember certain facts that have been simply stated by the teacher. In Chapter two tones *one* and *two* are introduced, and then follow seven exercises or tunes composed in these two tones. In the seven following chapters we learn, successively, tones *three*, *four*, *five*, with all the *skips* on *one*, *three*, and *five*, also the *tie* and *rests*. *One* or *do* is *below the line*, and one, two, and three lines are used as the number of tones requires. Forty-two exercises, and twenty songs are found in these seven chapters, some of them being quite

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difficult for pupils, just taking their "first steps;" for remember, they are to do *all* the work themselves, and the songs must first be sung to *one, two, three,* or *do, re, mi,* if necessary. In chapters ten eleven, and twelve, the first line is used as "one;" the *scale* and *staff* are completed, and seventeen exercises and songs furnish abundant practice in skips, some of them being quite difficult. The next chapter gives "one" to the first space, and the book closes with "Truant Bennie," a song of forty-eight measures, quite in contrast with the little tunes of *eight measures* and *two tones,* on page nine. The "second book" is somewhat larger, none of the exercise and songs being of less than sixteen measures, while some of them cover an entire page. In both books there are just two hundred tunes, and they are so nicely graded, that the pupil hardly realizes how fast he is learning to read difficult music. This is our *foundation,* and all of it is practical, substantial and necessary. The first lesson of this book gives a novel way of indicating the position of "one" or "do," viz: a figure placed opposite one of the second or third lines, by which the dullest pupil will see that one is on the *first line*: 2, 4, and 6 opposite the second, third or fourth lines, respectively, meaning "one" in the first *space,* etc. In this way pupils are as truly learning to read music in different keys, as though the *signatures* were given, which, as the author says, "they are not yet capable of understanding." We, next learn *piano, mezzo* and *forte* in nine well chosen lessons. Thus far we have only used eight tunes, but in chapters three and four the *lower scale,* with the usual skips, is taught. Fifty-four songs and lessons make the pupil acquainted with triple measure, the dotted half note, and various important intervals and phrases. Some of the exercises are ingeniously arranged as *duetts, rounds,* etc., and many of the songs are quite pretty. The pupils will be very enthusiastic in learning these lessons *if they are allowed to do all the work themselves;* even to detecting and correcting their own mistakes. The same book closes with the *upper scale, quadruple, measure,* and *whole note.* The words are unexceptionable and the melodies correctly and flowingly written. Many tunes which may *seem* trivial and barren, if "hummed" by an adult, will be found far otherwise when heartily sung by children. The work already done gives promise that the third and fourth books will furnish practical and theoretical instruction in all that pertains to musical notation, and worthily complete the structure whose foundation has been so skillfully and thoroughly laid.

Let the children still sing "by ear;" teach them all the beautiful songs you can, and try to have them sing as tastefully as possible; but along with this, give them the "first step" in musical knowledge, and the day is not far distant when a majority of the older pupils will readily sing any ordinary music. How long would our schools, public and private, sustain themselves, if the pupils were simply taught to *memorize selected pieces,* even though they recited or declaimed them with all the grace and eloquence of Demosthenes himself? And shall music, the only *universal language*—the language alike of Earth and Heaven—be taught in a less sensible and practical manner than the common branches? Teachers, parents, and all who wish to become independent singers,—get these books and try them. If you can make better ones, do so, but be assured that no one ever learned to read music by *simply* singing tunes *by ear;* that no amount of purely theoretical knowledge concerning *clefs, scales, sharps, flats,* etc., is, of itself, of any real value; and that nothing but practice, *practice, practice,* through a *properly graded course of lessons,* will ever enable the masses to obtain that control of voice and ear, and that familiarity with the characters used in notation, which it is necessary for them to have if they are ever to become *independent singers.*

HENRY M. BUTLER.

St. Louis.

A SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES. By S. AUGUSTUS MITCHELL, published by *E. H. Butler, & Co.,* Philadelphia.

Mitchell's new series of geographies comes to us with the recent addition of a very excellent little book on map-drawing, by two of the teachers of the Cincinnati public schools. Map-drawing is theoretically one of the best of modern improvements in teaching. Practically, it has, in most cases, been a failure. The methods of the scientific draughtsman can neither be taught nor learned in the public school, and the effort to master a too complicated system has usually resulted in discouraging both teacher and pupil. The very few construction lines that this system requires, and its general simplicity will commend it to many.

The publishers of Mitchell's geography deserve the gratitude of the children, for having been among the first to present them with school books, whose clear, beautifully illustrated pages are a constant delight to the eye. Of the new physical geography this is especially true. The author's treatment of this much neglected department of the study is excellent. It is made as fascinating as a fairy tale and cannot fail to interest the youth of our schools. We cannot too persisently urge upon teachers the importance of making their pupils

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acquainted with the great facts and principles of the earth's structure, instead of dwelling so long upon the unimportant details with which our geographies are crowded. Teachers will become indeed worthy of the name when they rise to this work.

THE SUNDAY SCHOOL IDEA: An Exposition of the Principles which underlie the Sunday school cause, setting forth its Objects, Organizations, Methods and Capabilities. By JOHN S. HART, LL. D., Senior Editor of The Sunday School Times, etc., etc. 416 pages, $1 50. Philadelphia: *J. C. Garrigues & Co.* For sale by J. W. McIntyre, St. Louis.

At the last election, the people, by an overwhelming majority, adopted an amendment to the state constitution which provides as follows: "Neither the General Assembly nor any county, city, town, township, school-district or other municipal corporation shall ever make any appropriation, or pay from any public fund whatever, anything in aid of any creed, church, or sectarian purpose, or to help support or sustain any school, academy, seminary, college, university or other institution of learning controlled by any creed, church, or sectarian denomination whatever; nor shall any grant or donation of personal property or real estate ever be made by state, county, city, town, or such public corporations, for any creed, church, or sectarian purpose whatever."

The incorporation of this provision into the organic law of the state, secures permanently to our public schools an adequate fund for their support, at the same time it indicates that they are instituted for certain definite and limited ends. The state undertakes to provide the elements of secular education only. This leaves the entire work of religious culture and training of the young to voluntary Christian effort. The Sunday Schools are a very important agency in effecting this result, and therefore we welcome any book that may be of assistance in this field of labor.

This latest contribution to our SS. literature by Dr. Hart has many excellent features. The author fully appreciates the great work that the Sunday school has to do in the church, and especially dwells upon the aggressive work of the mission school. He would have (and rightly) brought to his work, the same energy, method and efficiency, that characterize our best public schools. Sabbath school teachers will find many valuable suggestions, which, if they heed them, will add much to the efficiency of their labor.

The mechanical execution is very admirable. We bespeak for the book a cordial reception from all Sunday school workers.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

From L. W. Schmidt, New York:

1. Grammatica Celtica, e monuments vetustis tam Hibernicae linguae quam Britannicarum dialectorum, Cambricae, Cornicae, Armoricae comparatis, Gallicae priscae reliquiis construxit. J. C. Zeuss. Editio altera. Curavit H. Ebel. Fasciculus I. Berolini apud Weidmannos: 1868. (Zeuss' Celtic Grammar).

2. Altenglische Sprachproben, Nebst einem Woerterbuch, Unter Mitwirkung von Karl Goldbeck; Herausgegeben, von Eduard Maetzner Erster Band, Sprachproben; Erste Abtheilung, Poesie, 1867; Zweite Abtheilung: Prosa; 1869; Berlin, Weidmannsche Buchhandlung. [Specimens of Old English, in prose and poetry, with a Lexicon. By Edward Maetzner and Karl Goldbeck].

3. Franzoesische Grammatik, mit besonderer Beruecksichtigung des Lateinischen, bearbeitet von Eduard Maetzner. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1856. [French Grammar, treated with special reference to Latin. By Edward Maetzner].

4. Methodische Grammatik der griechischen Sprache von Rudolf Westphal. Erster Theil. Erste Abtheilung, 1870. Zweite Abtheilung, 1871. Jena: Mauke's Verlag (Hermann Dufft). [Systematic Grammar of the Greek Language. By R. Westphal].

5. Philosophisch-historiche Grammatik der deutschen Sprache. Von R. Westphal. Jena: Mauke's Verlag (Hermann Dufft), 1869. [Philosophico-historical Grammar of the German Language. By R. Westphal].

6. Acht psychologische Vortraege, von Dr. C. Fortlage, Professor an der Universitaet Jena. Jena Mauke's Verlag (Hermann Dufft), 1869. [Eight Psychological Discourses, by Dr. C. Fortlage].

7. Paedagogischer Jahresbericht, von 1868, fuer die Volks-schullehrer Deutschlands und der Schweiz. Bearbeitet und herausgegeben von August Lueben, Seminardirektor in Bremen, Einundzwanzigster Jahrgang. Leipzig: Friedrich Brandstetter, 1870. [Annual Educational Report for the Common School teachers of Germany and Switzerland].

From Sheldon & Company, New York:

1. A Complete Manual of English Literature. By Thomas B. Shaw, M. A. Edited with Notes and Illustrations, by William Smith, LL.D. With a Sketch of American Literature, by Henry T. Tuckerman.

2. A Smaller History of English and American Literature for the Use of Schools. Edited by William Smith, LL.D. and Henry T. Tuckerman.

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A. S. Barhes & Co., New Yoak and Chicago:

1. Elementary Treatise on Mechanics, for the uve of Colleges and Schools of Science. By William G. Peck, LL.D., 1870.

2. The Normal Grammar: Analytic and Synthetic. Illustrated by Diagrams, by Stephen W. Clark, A. M., 1870.

3. Independent First, Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Readers, by J. Madison Watson, 1870.

Eldridge & Brother, Philadelphia:

1. C. Sallusti Crispi Catilina et Jugurtha. With Explanatory Notes, Lexicon, etc. By George Stuart, A. M., 1871.

Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., New York:

Greek Praxis, or, Greek for Beginners. Containing Orthography, Etymology, and Greek Reading Lessons, together with Notes and a Vocabulary. By J. A. Spencer, L. T. D., 1870.

Education at Home and Abroad.

The annual meeting of the Board of Curators of the State University commenced at Columbia on the 21st instant:

Dr. Read, President of the University, reported briefly that there were at present 152 young men, students in the University, some of them of extraordinary promise; 22 young ladies, and 20 in the model school. He stated that there was now room for many more students, the cottages belonging to the agricultural college farm affording room for the boarding of students. The most important business of the season, he presumed, would be the consideration of the report of the committee on organization, appointed at a previous meeting. The work of the committee had thus far chiefly devolved upon him, owing to the serious illness of the chairman, Mr. Wyman.

The committee appointed by the Board of Curators on the reorganization of the University and the adaptation and harmonizing of its various courses of studies, so as to meet the requirements of the act of Congress, July 2, 1862, donating public lands for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, and also the act of the General Assembly of the State of Missouri, approved Feb. 4, 1870, making the Agricultural and Mechanical College a department of the State University, submitted an elaborate and able report, embracing in its topics a complete university system of education.

Some of the leading points presented in the report are the following: "The university a part of the State system," and "To be maintained as such;" to be "For the whole people, and therefore to be non-sectarian and non-partisan." That the University ought to be open to women was earnestly advocated, and the principle shown to be in harmony with the practice of leading institutions of the kind in this country and in Europe. A suitable building for a college-home for women students was recommended. In all respects the report advocates the adaptation of the University to the wants of the people in its instructions and influence.

The adoption of "elective courses of study" was recommended, in order that the particular wants and talents of each student may be suitably encouraged. Freedom of choice in regard to courses of stndy, to the extent consistent with good order, was advocated; also, the giving of greater prominence to the student of modern languages, especially the English language. "The study of our English language," says the report, "with its grand and ennobling literature, must be provided for in the amplest manner, whatever other language, ancient or modern, is neglected."

A course of studies suitable to the wants of young men beyond the ordinary school age was recommended. A commercial professor would be needed in time to give instruction in commerce and bookkeeping, the latter being important to all, including the farmer. The University should be accessible to all classes, and must be brought within the means of the greatest number.

The committee congratulated the State upon having, without means, established an agricultural department, with a professor of agriculture and the means of illustrating instructions.—*Cor. Mo. Republican.*

A Providence (R. I.) girl of sixteen, who recently graduated with the highest honors from the high school, immediately went into a factory and earned there $100. On Monday she started alone, armed with only her small fund, a flattering testimonial from the Superintendent of Schools and her determined spirit, for Oberlin, Ohio, to enter Oberlin College, where she can complete her education in a full collegiate course.

The New Jersey State Sunday School Convention, recently in session, adopted a resolution recommending the passage of a law to compel all children, between five and eighteen years of age, to attend school.

Ten or twelve full-blooded Indians desire to become students in Highland University, Kansas.

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By S. S. RANDALL, late Superintendent of Education of the City of New York.

A School History of the United States,

From the Earliest Discoveries to the Present Time. By Prof. WM. SWINTON, of the University of California.

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By HENRY KIDDLE, Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York.

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THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1871.

HOW SHALL WE TEACH A SACRED REGARD FOR TRUTH?

It needs, I think, no very thorough and detailed study of schools and school-habits in all sections of the country, to convince any one of the want in the minds of a majority of the pupils attending, of what can be called in any truthful sense, a sacred regard for truth.

There seems to be, according to my experience in common schools, a widely spread theory among school children, that truth to a teacher and truth to a parent or friend—truth on one side of the school-room door and truth on the other, are two very different things; and the same boy who would scorn to deceive his father, and would knock another boy down immediately for accusing him of a lie, will, without hesitation before, or shame afterwards, acknowledge that he has reported his deportment wrongly, for the sake of holding his rank in his class.

It has seemed to me, sometimes, that many children had almost utterly lost the power of recognizing pure truth when they see it in school, and that they were quite as oblivious of the presence of a lie, as the clergyman of whom the following story is told, had become of his habit of exaggeration: To such an extent had the habit grown upon him, that it was felt necessary by the church-trustees to warn him, at a meeting called for the purpose, of the evil example he was setting. He listened to the statements made humbly and penitently, and replied with a trembling voice; "Gentlemen, I have not been unconscious of this great fault. I have struggled against it, and the *barrels* of tears I have shed will bear witness to my sincerity;" and then he took his seat, quite unconscious that he had said anything unusual, and all unaware of the hopeless look upon the faces of the pitying trustees.

But what are the proper occasions for lessons on truth, and how shall these lessons be given, *viva voce* or *vivo exemplo*? "Actions speak louder than words," is a homely proverb, but it seems to need no demonstration, and it may, therefore, be set down as a truth of universal acceptation. It will not, I think, be denied, that all *words* of a teacher with regard to the sacredness of truth will be of no effect, if his daily *actions* show a disregard for it. And if this be granted, of course, the *proper* time is *all* the time that the teacher spends with his pupils.

Our question now becomes evidently this: "What do we mean by being strictly truthful in our dealings with our

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pupils?" Or we may treat the question more easily perhaps, by approaching it negatively and asking, "What actions of ours in our daily and hourly dealings with our pupils, will tend to destroy in their minds, in ever so small a degree, a sacred regard for truth?"

I shall speak of what may be called small things, but small things are not unimportant. "When the fame of Heraclitus was celebrated throughout Greece there were certain persons that had a, curiosity to see so great a man. They came, and, as it happened, found him warming himself in a kitchen. The meanness of the place occasioned them to stop, upon which the philosopher thus accosted them: 'Enter,' says he, 'boldly, for here too there are gods.'" Following so ancient and wise an authority, I may also say to myself in speaking of these things which seem small and mean: "Enter boldly, for here too there are gods; nay, perchance the very temple of the goddess Truth herself."

And first, should we not, if we want to give any directions to our pupils, as to study, or as to order, take pains to think beforehand *exactly* what we want done, and then to clothe our idea in words exactly fitted to convey them? What kind of an officer would he be who, through inattention or through neglect of proper preparation for his duty, should give the command: "Ground arms!" and then should find fault with his recruits for not presenting arms instead, saying: "You ought to have known I meant Present arms, because that was the next order?" This is an extreme illustration, and yet how many times do we hear teachers sharply reprimanding a pupil for some mistake, when the true cause of the failure was not careless listening on the part of the pupil, but careless direction on the part of the teacher. In such a case the child probably thinks thus, and does not forget the lesson: "He knows as well as I that he did not tell me so. Why does'nt he say so then, and not rebuke *me*, just to save his own reputation?" Closely allied to this and more directly bearing on our subject, is the false shame many teachers feel in acknowledging to a pupil or to the school, that they are wrong, if they have been so. For instance, a teacher makes a false statement in a recitation, which some of the brighter pupils, the next day perhaps, question, or prove to be wrong by authority or demonstration. I have seen teachers under such circumstances do two things, in neither of which they could be said to be actuated by a sacred regard for truth: One is, to eat their own previous words, and the second, is to stand by their previous statement after the fashion of the man who asked: "Did I say that the horse was fourteen feet high?" "Yes, you said so;" was the reply. "Then," said he, "if I said he was fourteen feet high I will stand to it. He *was* fourteen feet high, not an inch less." I remember distinctly the impression produced upon the minds of my own class, I am sorry to say in a Normal School, by like conduct. The teacher of the class in Natural Philosophy was absent, and one of the pupils was conducting the recitation. The subject of Compensation Pendulums came up, and the class did not understand by the explanation given, how by the unequal expansion of different metals the pendulum could be made to preserve a uniform length. The teacher *pro tem.*, in the difficulty applied to the principal who stood listening at her side. He hesitated, and asked if no one could explain, and then, begin forced to say something, asked: 'Don't you see how these different metals might be *mixed* in such proportions that the expansion of one would

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neutralize the expansion of the other?" It was said with an air which implied that *he* saw it perfectly, and some of the class, probably, thought it a mystery, and that when their intellects were more fully developed, they should also see it. But some of us, more skeptical, after the recitation was over, appealed to the British Encyclopædia, and found that our intellects were even then capable of understanding the phenomenon; but, it is hardly necessary to add, we did *not* find that the metals were *mixed*. To be sure, he ought to have understood the subject, and he ought to have been ashamed that he did not; but he ought to have been more ashamed not to tell the honest truth, and to attempt to cover up his ignorance by deception. Some teachers seem to labor under the impression, that they ought to be walking Encyclopædias of useful and useless knowledge, and are ashamed even to say, "I don't know." The best thing I ever heard on this subject was said by Guyot. He said: "The first time you say 'I don't know,' in answer to a question, your pupils will begin to believe you." Or another case may arise: A pupil has done wrong; we have rebuked him, but too severely, as we have to confess to ourselves. What shall we do —say nothing, thereby indorsing our previous words, or honestly and frankly acknowledge that we were wrong? By which of these two courses shall we best impress upon the minds of our pupils, a "sacred regard for truth?"

Again, ought we not in all cases to show to our pupils that we mean *exactly* what we say, neither more or less? The simple truth is *one*, while falsehood is infinite in its multiplicity. We can tell as many falsehoods as we please about a subject, but we can tell only *one* truth, or, truth is like a point; it has position, but no extension. Suppose we tell our pupils that school begins at nine o'clock, and then do not reckon one tardy who comes in a half a minute after nine. The pupils soon learn that *nine* does not mean *nine*, but *any time* from nine to five minutes past. We have given extension to our point, and it is no longer truth. I sometimes wonder whether in other schools teachers find it as difficult to convince their pupils that they mean *just* what they say, as we do. The pupils at the Normal School learn after a time, that "right hand upper corner" means the upper corner at the right hand, that nine o'clock means fifty-nine minutes and sixty seconds after eight; that one-half minute after the proper time for handing in an exercise does not save it from being marked tardy; that "collect papers," does *not* mean: "Write three words more and then collect;" that "*Ready* to pass" words in spelling, does not mean, Pass, but it takes some time to convince them of these facts.

There was some sense in the question of the boy who asked, "If *a, s, h, a* does'nt spell Asia, what *do* it spell?" There is quite as much in the inquiry: If our directions don't mean what they say, what do they mean? The instant we leave our point of exact truth, we have no limit, no guide, whatever. Truth is the exact correspondence between thought and its objects, and it is eminently true with regard to it, that "a miss is as good as a mile."

It will be only a variation of this same division of my subject, to speak of marking lessons. If we mark on a scale of five, five means perfect; i. e the pupil has recited without hesitation, has recited exactly, has answered all reasonable questions with regard to the part of the lesson that he has been called on to give. If he has failed at all, if he has hesitated, if he has not recited perfectly, and if 5 is our *perfect*, he has no right to it. Again, 0 means a *total* want of knowledge on the sub-

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ject on which he was called upon to recite. A percentage of 95 at the end of the quarter means, if it means anything, that the pupil, during that time has done 19-20 of all that has been required, and has failed only to the extent of 1-20. If we can and do mean this of many scholars as to scholarship, we may fairly congratulate ourselves on the pleasant and easy work we have. But if we do not mean just this, let us be careful how we say it if we desire to impress on the minds of our pupils a "sacred regard for truth." A person to whom the distinction between truth and not-truth has become uncertain, not clearly defined—and we all know how easy it is for it to become so—is as doubtful of his aim as a near-sighted person who is practising at target-shooting. The black spot in the centre looks like a black ring, and has a white spot inside of it, and the white ring looks black, and so on, till, as in the song of the tea-kettle in Dickens' Christmas Carol, "He isn't sure that anything is what it ought to be."

Again, in a certain college, it was the invariable practice of one of the teachers, whenever a visitor came into the room, to call on the class to recite on the subject of the steam-engine. The visitor always found himself amazed and highly pleased with the perfection of the recitation of the day's lesson; but the class were not so much surprised, as they knew that that was the company recitation, and they had been through it so many times that they felt tolerably sure of their ground. It has always seemed to me that Truth would not have selected that class-room as the most fitting location for her temple, judging from the amount of "sacred regard" for her that was taught there. Or how is a sacred regard for truth exhibited by the teacher, who never, when visitors are present, calls on any but the best scholars to recite? How grows the regard for truth in the mind of the pupil, who feels sure always that this is the case, and who knows besides, that if he makes an error at such a time, it will be passed over in silence, or adroitly turned by the teacher into the true statement, which he knows, and the rest of the class know, was never given by him?

But enough. I have, as I said, spoken of little things. They are little, but they are also great. They are little in the same way that the lever of the throttle valve of the locomotive engine is little. They are little in same way that the angle between the two rails at a railroad switch is little. It makes very little difference it would seem, whether the engine with its following train runs one hair's breadth to the right, or one hair's breadth to the left. But the throttle valve open or shut makes rest or motion, sends life and healthful energy through every particle of every car that depends upon the engine, and carries many to their destination in time; or leaves the fuel to smoke itself out and the train at a standstill, useless upon the track; and the careless switchman bears through all his life the haunting memory which will never let him rest, of ruin and destruction.

ANNA C. BRACKETT.

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J. DORMAN STEELE.

J. Dorman Steele, A. M., Ph. D., was born at Lima, N. Y., on the 14th of May, 1836. His father, the Rev. Allen Steele, is a noted minister of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and is regarded as one of the most accomplished pulpit orators in that State. He has been located in New York, Albany, Troy, Buffalo, Rochester, and other leading cities.

J. Dorman prepared for College at the noted Classical Institute, Albany, and at the Boys' Academy, Troy. At the age of thirteen he studied Latin, Greek, French and German, and was considered a fair scholar in each. In 1858 he graduated at Genesee College, and soon after went to Mexico Academy, one of the oldest academies in New York, as professor of natural science. The need of doing more work in the sciences in less time than the text-books in use required, soo became apparent to him, and he began to expurgate the text and teach orally and by lectures in order to meet this want. In 1859 he was appointed principal. Under his management the school increased largely and a library and apparatus were purchased. Mr. Steele remained here until 1861, when he enlisted in the 81st N. Y. S. Vols., raised a co m pany, was elected captain, and went to war. He served in McClellan's Peninsular campaign, and at the battle of Seven Pines was wounded in the left hand, but remained on the field and led his company until night. A week after he was sent to the hospital, where he was attacked with fever and rheumatism, was sick for many months, and finally resigned and was honorably discharged the service. In 1862 he was elected prin-

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cipal of Newark Union Free School and Academy, and resumed his work of teaching the sciences. Each season he gave a lecture, weekly, with experimental illustrations, to large audiences. With the proceeds he purchased a library and very completely equiped the laboratory with all needful apparatus. During this time he continued his task of condensing the work of each branch of science into a term's study.

In 1866 he was elected principal of the Free Academy at Elmira, where he introduced the sciences on his new plan. At this time he began to write. His Mss. grew into shape in his classes out of actual recitations. The analysis of each subject, the ideas advanced, the illustrations used, were suggested in the school-room.

In 1867 he prepared his "Fourteen Weeks in Chemistry" for the press, and was having it printed at Elmira, for the use of his classes and those of his personal teacher-friends when his present publishers proposed to publish it for him.

In 1868 he prepared his Astronomy. In 1869 his Philosophy, and in 1870 his Geology; all on the same plan as his Chemistry.

Mr. Steele's mode of governing a school is peculiar, and has received marked attention. Believing in the basis-thought of *self-control,* he leaves his pupils to themselves with no teachers or monitors, but they are taught at once to work and guide themselves. He has no system of marking ; no demerits ; no flogging ; no turning out of or suspending from school. In an article on School Government published in THE REVIEW for March, 1870, he says:

"Our large study room, containing one hundred and sixty desks, is given up to the pupils for their own purposes. No teacher sits in it to keep order. If a pupil wishes to leave his seat or to whisper he does so. He is presumed to be the best judge of his own wants. Classes pass to and from the recitation-rooms called by the pupils. If the teacher does not immediately appear when the class assembles they commence recitation. If the teacher fails to come at all, they finish their work and return to the study room. The pupils ring the bell, call and close recesses and attend to all the minutiæ of school work. If any pupil sees a pencil mark on the wall he will erase it; a piece of paper on the floor he will pick it up; anything wrong he will stop and right it. One may often pass through the school-room without attracting an eye. Let a band of music go by or an alarm of fire be heard, and a pupil could not rush to the window or leave his work without a hiss from the school and a general call to order. Many a time have I gone into a lower room and found some wild, music loving boy with his fingers stuck into his ears, his head bent down over his book and his brows knotted in his earnest determination to achieve the joy of a self-victory."

As an author, Mr Steele has invested with the most winning charms subjects heretofore considered dry and distasteful. Although at times somewhat highly colored, his style is easy, graceful, and always refined. There is remarkable felicity in his illustrations, which are frequently literary gems of the first water. Instance his definition of potential and dynamic force, in an article on "Force" in THE REVIEW for December 1869:

"Potential force is one that is concealed, lying in wait, and ready to burst forth on the instant. It is a loaded gun prepared for the use of the marksman. "It is the sword of Damocles suspended by a hair." It is the river trembling on the brink of a precipice, ready to take the fearful leap. It is the giant, the Farnese Hercules leaning on his club,—passive, yet ready for action,—every muscle relaxed, but only waiting the word of command. It is stored up energy; the gold lying in the vault, full of power, but withdrawn from active circulation and use. It is a weight wound up, full of potential force—the strong pull of the earth—ready but not able to fall.

Dynamic force is not latent or concealed, but force in full view, in actual operation. The hair is cut, the sword is striking, the bullet is speeding to the mark, the river is tumbling, the giant is in action, the gold is in circulation, and the weight is falling. It is heat radiating from our fires, electricity flashing our messages across the continent, or gravity pulling bodies head-long to the earth."

At the N. Y. State University Convo-

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cation last summer, his degree of Ph. D. was conferred "in consideration of eminent services as a teacher" by the highest educational authority in the State—the Regents of the University. His election as President of the New York State Teachers Association is also a pleasant feature of the year. In all things he has undertaken, he has acquitted himself with honor, and imparted a nobility and dignity to the teachers profession. That he may live to realize the bright promise of his future is the fervent wish of thousands of his co-laborers.

HINTS TOWARD REFORM IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

[Read at Sedalia, Mo., before the State Teachers' Association, Dec. 28th, 1870.]

I do not doubt in the least that I shall gain the assent of every teacher present, when I affirm that the instruction in English grammar in most of our schools is comparatively a failure. It is, I believe, generally admitted that teachers who teach every thing else well, teach grammar poorly; that pupils who like every thing else dislike this study; that the recitation in grammar is considered a bore to both teachers and pupils; that the substantial results of its study, in proportion to the time spent upon it, are far less than in the case of any other branch pursued at school; in short, that the teaching of English grammar is a stupendous illustration of the problem of "how *not* to do it?"

Our experience teaches us these facts, and the recorded experience of others confirms our impressions. No one at all familiar with the recent literature of our profession, can have failed to mark the universal dissatisfaction with the prevailing methods of teaching this branch, and the result of those methods. It is asserted that of the three great ends aimed at in the study of this subject—knowledge, skill, and discipline—none are properly attained. That, after years of study, pupils instead of knowing the *theory* of grammar, have acquired little else than the ability to use, more or less glibly, a stock of words which, to their minds, stand for no realities. That, instead of being able to speak and write the English language correctly, the majority of them cannot put on paper the simplest piece of composition without the grossest blunders. That, instead of receiving the mental training which the proper study of this science at a suitable age is fitted to yield, they have their powers of discrimination dulled, and their logical faculties insulted and demoralized by rote-teaching, distinctions without differences, want of distinction between things essentially different, and ambiguous, incorrect, contradictory, and meaningless definitions. That this state of things calls loudly for reform, no one will question. That the reform is begun and is moving on, I am quite ready to admit. But it moves very slowly. The fact is that right here have been committed some of the most egregious educational blunders of modern times. And such is our reverence for the authority of the past, that we perpetuate these mistakes long after they have been pointed out. In the presence of immemorial antiquity we bow with reverential awe, and criticism is silent. Possession is nine points of the law, and grammar as it is, has possession of the schools. Hence, the reform needs to be pushed incessantly. To help it forward, though never so little, is the object of what I have to say.

At the outset it is necessary to make

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certain distinctions, which should be kept in mind throughout this discussion. And first let me explain a distinction already hinted at—that of the objects aimed at in the study of language. It only needs to distinguish between *skill* and *knowledge*, for the simple reason that the methods best fitted to secure these ends, will also be found best fitted to secure the discipline that the study can give. By skill, then, I mean the practical—by knowledge, the theoretical part of one's mental furnishing. Skill implies the ability to use an instrument; knowledge implies acquaintance with the laws that underlie its use. Skill is the result of practice, knowledge of study. That they may exist independently of each other, is a truism. The engineer to whom you entrust your life on the railroad, knows nothing of the science of physics, yet Tyndall himself could not manage the iron horse so skillfully. The musician who delights you with the concord of sweet sounds, cares nothing, perhaps, for the theory of vibrations—acoustics is still Greek to her. So the ability to use the English language accurately, forcibly, elegantly, may exist, has existed, with but the slighest knowledge of theoretical grammar. And the converse is true. No one pretends that the best grammarians are the best writers.

Now it will, I think, be admitted that for the great mass of our pupils, the ability to use the language correctly, and not mere theoretical knowledge, is the grand desideratum. This leads us at once to the distinction between grammar as a *science*, grammar proper, and grammar as an *art*—composition. This distinction is a fundamental one; and you will please bear in mind that in this discussion I use the word grammar in the former sense—I mean the *science* and not the *art*.

And now, in the brief time allotted to me, I wish to make the following points:

1. The study of theoretical grammar must be pushed forward into its proper place in a rational curriculum—out of the lower grades into the higher, out of the primary and the grammar school into the high school and the college.

2. The time and labor now wasted in the lower grades on the gibberish called elementary grammar, should be devoted to a thorough, extensive, systematic, and judiciously graded course of instruction in sentence-making—composition, the art of putting words together to express thoughts.

3. When grammar is reached in the course, it should be taught as a science, and in a scientific manner; which implies a mode of teaching that is impossible while the present text-books have the field.

To each of these points in succession let us address ourselves briefly:

1. It will be a great point gained, when grammar is thrown out of the lower grades of school. I believe that in spite of all that has been said and written on this subject, an immense amount of time is worse than wasted in the attempt to teach this branch at too early an age. Hence my first step toward a reform would be to make a grand bon-fire of all the elementary grammars. The truth needs to be reiterated until it is generally recognized and acted upon, that grammar is not a study for children, but for mature minds. To understand it requires the exercise of powers of mind that come latest in the order of development. It belongs, according to some of the best educators, to the same period of mental development with logic and psychology, with which it is closely related. It cannot be simplified any more than logic can be simplified. The very attempt to simplify it, strips it of its scientific value.

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Adapt the definition of a verb, for instance, to the capacity of a child ten years old, and it ceases to be a definition. "The teaching of abstract grammar to children is an intensely stupid custom," says Herbert Spencer. "Grammar is not learned," says a writer in the *Westminister Review*, "and never can be learned at school. The attempt to teach it, the mode of teaching it, and the pretense of teaching a language through it, are insults to the common sense of mankind, as well as to the experience of ages." What wonder that the results are unsatisfactory when the undisciplined mind of childhood is set to grapple with difficulties that puzzle even the mature faculties of the trained thinker?

One great objection to the postponement of grammar to a later period in the course of study, will disappear when it comes to be generally understood that the practical command of language never was and never will be acquired by studying its theory. It needs only to be stated to secure instant assent, that the art of writing, like every other art, is to be learned by practice and only by practice. Here, as everywhere, we learn to do by doing. Here, as everywhere, "practice," to use the words of Carlyle, "is the grand school-master." Here, as everywhere, habit is stronger than rules. The child trained to hear and imitate correct speaking, will speak correctly. The child trained to read and imitate correct writing will write correctly; and without such training no amount of theortical knowledge will ever make a correct speaker and writer. The familiar fact that the great masters of every tongue—Homer, Demosthenes, Plato, Virgil, Cicero, Dante, Moliere, Chaucer, Shakspeare—wrote without any theories of grammar, should teach us that, as grammar was *made* after language, so it ought to be *studied* after language.

If, then, it is admitted that this is an extremely difficult and abstract study, and not at all necessary to the acquisition of correct habits of speech and writing, the inference seems obvious that a knowledge of it is not needed by the great mass of pupils, who leave school at an early age; and that, if the place it holds can be filled with studies of greater practical value, no loss, but rather immense gain will result from its postponement. That there *are* such studies seems no longer to admit of doubt. And the time is at hand, too, when one may assert this without being accused of underrating the immense educational value of grammar as it might be taught to those capable of understanding it.

But, waiving these considerations, it seems to me that the true teacher will find a sufficient reason for the course here insisted on, in the single fact that grammar can never be properly taught without previous drill in composition, joined with a knowledge of the language gained by extensive and careful reading. Only thus can a solid foundation be laid for true inductive teaching. What are the rules, principles, and definitions of grammar? They are the driest of abstractions, and the pupil as yet knows nothing of abstractions. He sees things only in the concrete—to him abstractions are nonentities. Moreover, they are the results of extensive inquiry and observation, which the pupil has had no opportunity to make, "and to give the net product of inquiry without the inquiry that led to it, is found to be both enervating and inefficient," says Herbert Spencer. Once more, they are laws—generalizations—based upon facts with which the pupil is not yet familiar; and until he *is* familiar with the facts, the principles drawn from them, laboriously

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memorized, lie in the mind as so much useless lumber. No generalization is *ever* comprehended until the mind grasps the facts upon which it is built, Thus the old method breaks down in the supreme function of education, the organization of knowledge into faculty. But how shall the facts of language be made so familiar to the student, that when he comes to study its theory, the statements of the grammarian shall seem to be simply the expression of the results of his own observation and thinking?

2. This brings us to my second point, and to answer it is to repeat that we must reverse the usual order and learn to follow the method of nature. We must teach the facts of language first, its theory afterwards. We must begin the course of instruction in language with composition, the *art practically* taught, and let grammar follow, where it belongs, at the end, as the finishing instrument, *scientifically* taught. Here let me state and answer certain objections: "Suppose," says one, "that we act upon this theory, and throw grammar out of the schools, what shall we put in its place? Where shall we find a suitable course of instruction in composition laid down? What text-book is to take the place of grammar? And, above all, where are the teachers competent to carry this theory into successful practice? I confess that it is easier to ask these question than to answer them; but let it be remembered that the asking of them is a preliminary step to the answering of them; and that after they have been repeated long enough, and loud enough, and earnestly enough, the answers will come, never fear. Already the want is beginning to be widely felt, and we have several books written to supply it. That they do *not* supply it is what we might expect *a priori*. One can easily guess their prevailing radical fault. They make too much of *theory*, too little of *practice*. They are not yet emancipated from the old absurd notion, that the best way to learn to do a thing is, not to *do* it; but to cram one's head with incomprehensible rules directing *how it should be done*. I believe that the ghost of this error haunts no other study at the present time, except this one of language. I shall content myself with saying here, that the course I have in mind will begin at the outset of the child's school career, and extend throughout that career. It will begin with real things, and train the pupil to express his thoughts about those things in sentences; thus familiarizing the mind from the start with the *sentence* as the *unit* of languge. The exercises will be regular and daily. They will begin with simple sentences expressing the qualities, actions, parts, positions, sources, uses, materials, and classification of things. They will include copying, writing from dictation, writing sentences containing given words, stories told by the teacher, stories from outlines, letters, business papers, changing poetry into prose, &c., &c. A few years of this drill will prepare the way for the writing of essays on subjects within the capacity of the pupil. There will be no rules—no theories at first; and rules will be introduced then, and *only* then, when the pupil is prepared by a wide acquaintance with facts, to grasp with avidity the rule that generalizes those facts. One result of this course of training will of course be, that much of the *science*, as well as the *art*, will be learned incidentally, and learned in the most natural, agreeable, and effectual manner. And this theoretical knowledge, so gained, will be sufficient to meet the wants of the majority of pupils. But the few who seek a more extended culture will reach grammar in the

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course and study it as a science; and so studied, at the proper age, and with the preparatory training insisted on, it yields a culture that is indispensable to a liberal education.

3. But (and this is my *third* point) much that now passes under the name of English grammar will not be taught by the coming teacher, nor studied by the coming pupil. English grammar is at present in a very unsatisfactory condition. It has not shared in the immense advances made by all other sciences during the present century. It has been neglected by the Faradays, the Darwins, and the Huxleys, and left to the care of pedants and fossils.

Our school grammars appear to ignor the great science of modern philology, built up recently by the labors of Bopp, Grimm, Max Muller, Whitney, and their compeers. In short, they are not yet emancipated from the scholastic philosophy of the middle ages, and are as unfit to be taught in the year 1870 as would be a chemistry written fifty years ago.

These assertions are made deliberately, and in full view of the criticisms to which I expose myself. My opinions on this point have at least the merit of being the result of considerable thought and study. To state their grounds in full, to marshal the proofs at my command is impossible here. It must suffice to indicate briefly a few of the many considerations that have led me to these conclusions. Let it be understood that the popular grammars are here condemned, not so much because of the *erroneous teaching* which they contain, as because of the *mental habit* which they engender; and, in particular, if it can be shown that they encourage—nay, that the grammarians themselves are slaves to the pernicious mental habit of using *words* without attaching to em any definite *ideas*—without realizing to the mind the *things* for which they stand, I shall ask you to decide the case against them. This fault, as all will agree, is a *radical* one. But to the proof. A single example must suffice. Take *case* for that example. But to set the subject in a clear light, a few preliminary observations are necessary.

The *sentence* is the *unit* of language; and it seems to me that through the process of differentiation grammar has come to be treated as simply the *science of the sentence*—that is, as dealing with *sentences*, and with *words only as combined in sentences*. Words combined in sentences are brought into definite *relations* with one another; and grammar is an exposition of the *relations* of *words in sentences and the modes of showing these relations.*

The relations of words in sentences are indicated in four several ways, so far as I can discover:

1. By their *position* in the sentence.
2. By *variations of form—inflections.*
3. By *relation-words, prepositions, &c.*
4. By *punctuation.*

The last is added for the sake of completeness, but it is unessential. We are here concerned with the relations of the *noun* to other words; and the first question is, how many different relations may it sustain in a sentence? A moment's reflection will convince us that the relations among words, like those among the objects represented by them, are innumerable. The best we can do is to classify them more or less accurately, without attempting to enumerate them. Adopting familiar phraseology, then, we may name the following classes of relations in which a noun may stand to the other words of the sentence:

1. It may stand in various relations as the *subject* of a proposition—*subjective* relations.

2. It may stand in various relations as a *predicative* noun—*predicative* relations.

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3. It may stand in various relations as the direct object of a transitive verb—direct objective relations.

4. It may stand in various relations as the *indirect object* of a verb—*indirect objective* relations.

5. It may stand in various relations as a modifier of another noun—adjective relations.

6. It may stand in various relations a modifier of a verb or an adjective—adverbial relations.

7. And we may add that it may be used in various ways independently, or without any grammatical relation.

Here we have at least six large classes of relations, which are pointed out, as before stated, in three ways: by the *position* of the noun, by *prepositions*, and by certain *variations* of *form*, which we will call *case-forms*. The number of these *case-forms* varies in different languages. Thus, the English noun has *two* (the pronoun three), the Latin six, the Greek five, the Sanscrit eight, and the Lithuanian fifteen. But no language has as many case-forms as there are relations to be shown, which are measured neither by six, nor by six times six, neither by eight, nor by eight times eight. The deficiency is supplied by the use of prepositions, and by using the same form to show several different relations. It may be remarked, in passing, that there is no more sense in calling a noun the object of a preposition, than there would be in calling a noun in the genitive case in Latin the object of the genitive ending. The preposition and the case-ending perform precisely the same function: they show the relation of a noun to some other word. The word "government," too, is entirely unnecessary in grammar.

In the light of these facts, and keeping in mind two entirely distinct things, the relation to be shown, and the variation of form to show that relation, let us examine the treatment of this subject by the grammarians. And what do we find? They have tumbled everything together under the head of "case," and have made it "chaos." Many of them define "case" to be the "relation" of the noun to other words, and yet limit the number of cases to three, four, or five, according to their fancy. Another class define "case" to be the "variation" of "form" which "shows the relation of the noun to other words," and yet give the noun in English three, four, or five cases, according to their fancy.

Both modes of treatment are utterly preposterous; for it is perfectly clear that if "case" is "relation," the noun in English has "many" cases; whereas if case is "form," it has at most two. But the worst is not yet told. Either of the preceding definitions would be intelligible if consistently adhered to; but many of the most popular grammars contain definitions that are utterly unintelligible. Here are a few out of many: Greene, Wells, and others say, "Case 'denotes' the relation of nouns to other words." The word "denotes" being ambiguous, the definition may mean either that case "is" the relation, or that case "shows" the relation. "Case is that property (modification, accident) which distinguishes the relations of nouns to other words," is a definition found in many grammars—a definition that means nothing because the authors nowhere give any clue to what they mean by property, modification, or accident. Turning to a "normal" grammar, lately published, I find this complete inversion of the whole subject: "Case is that property of nouns and pronouns 'indicated by' their relation to other words." Another darkens counsel with these words without knowledge: "Case is the 'condition' or 'state' of a noun in its relation to other words in a sentence." What the author means by "condition"

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or "state," and "relation," or by what *hocus pocus* the "condition" got into the "relation," he doesn't take the trouble to tell us.

Here are three several definitions by the same author, in as many different books: (1.) "Case is the sense or form in which nouns and pronouns are construed with other words to express thought." (2.) "Case is that property of nouns and pronouns which shows how they are used in the construction of sentences." (3.) "Cases are the relations of substantives to other words in the forming of sentences." "Sense," "form," "property," "relation." "You pays your money and you takes your choice." But all these are entirely outdone by one Pierce, who overwhelms you with the following: "Case is the medium of distinction used to describe, by the relation of a name or substitute to other words, the relation of an object or idea, to some fact or event, or of one object to another." Here we have case decently buried beneath "the immense pomposity of sesquipedalian verbiage." But a still more vivid conception of this "confusion worse confounded" will be got when we attempt to find how many cases there are. You will not be much surprised, however, to learn that according to Cardell, Brightland, and others, there are "no" cases in English.

"One," according to Buchanan and Adam.

"Two," according to Fowle, Webber, Johnson, Leowth, and others.

"Three," according to Greene, Quackenbos, Bullion & Co.

"Four," on the reckoning of Clark, Harvey, Pinneo & Co.

"Five," as counted by Bingham, Hall, and others; and

"Six," if we take the word of Thompson, Dilworth, Corr, and others.

Thus the number ranges from zero to six; but there seems to be no good reason why they should stop at the paltry number of six, and I think we may yet confidently look for new discoveries in this field.

Having thus seen that the treatment of "case" by the grammarians is confused, inconsistent, and illogical—is, in fact, utterly inconceivable on the supposition that they attach any definite meaning to the words they use, you are prepared to expect the same of their treatment of many other parts of grammar; and you will not be disappointed. What I have said of "case" applies equally to "gender," "person," "mode," "tense," &c. Here, as there, the "meaning to be expressed," the "relation to be shown," is confounded with the "means" of "expressing" the "meaning," "of showing the relation." And if the grammarians don't know what they mean by these terms, how can pupils be expected to know? And yet these palpable absurdities are crammed into the helpless minds of children in the name of education. They are expected to acquire "culture," forsooth, by performing juggler's tricks with empty words!

In conclusion, let me say that English grammar must be re-constructed from the bottom up. No satisfactory results need be expected from its study until it is rescued from the hands of chaotic thinkers by those who will apply to it not only the principles and methods of modern science, but also the same habits of close, careful, and logical thought and investigation that have given to physical science its present splendid pre-eminence.

A. F. HAMILTON.
Sup't Public Schools, Jefferson City, Mo.

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SOME DEFECTS IN AMERICAN TEACHING.

A shrewd observer of the schools in any country might, without further data, determine all the leading features of the national life. In the schools the ideal of the nation is being modeled. If they are under the direction of the government, the government will so order them as to develop the boys and girls into the national ideals; if they are under *private* management, their successful patronage will depend upon their skill in fitting men and women to assume leading positions in their respective *social* ranks. That is, the schools are *factories* that turn out supplies to meet the national demand, and are regulated very closely according to the laws of commercial trade. The supply and the demand keep pretty well balanced, and here, as in trade, the advance in quality may proceed from either side. Some great national struggle or experience may give a sudden forward stride to the intellectual insight and moral feeling, and raise the national ideal, and thus make a higher demand upon the schools. On the other hand a fortunate development of pedagogy may bring out a school product of better quality, and thus, throwing upon the market a more efficient specimen of manhood and womanhood soon created a demand for a better article. Just here is the basis for the distinction between the teacher-artisan and teacher-artist. The artisan fulfils a contract, and his excellence is measured by the exactness with which his work corresponds to the furnished model. The best teacher-artisan is the one who best satisfies the popular demand, that is, who fits his pupils to move in the established political and social ruts in the most efficient way. The artist is one who improves the models, who holds and embodies conceptions higher than those at which the popular feeling consciously or immediately aims. The men and women he sees are the men and women of the future; men and women, who by their restless discontent with slow, round-about methods, and their eager longing for the highest excellence, cut new paths and press straight forward to the highest human summits. It is great merit to be an excellent artisan. I need not tell you it is great merit to be an artist—the human spirit instinctively appears with uncovered head in the presence of a creator;—we have many artisans and some artists, and a few who are both artisan and artists and these are the ideal teachers. An artist is one who can conceive and embody an ideal, and he is an artist, though he may have embodied but one in his whole life. We let him select his material from the richest bronze and rarest marble, and ask only that he shall give us types of excellence, models to improve the general taste, and to be copied by our artisans in coarser materials; but the artist-artisan takes the materials he finds everywhere about him, the coarse stone and clumsy brick of which we build our every-day houses, and hacks them down and piles them up till they gradually come into the generic forms of his faultless ideal. When he falls upon a bit of fine marble, whose delicate grain will work into graceful curves and take a brilliant polish, every-one sees that an artist is at work, but the poet and man of science detect the aim, and recognize the artist as readily in the stroke of the mallet as in the delicate lines of the polishing chisel; that is, whatever the material, he is moulding it into ideals which even the rigidity of the substance cannot fail to disclose. Such a teacher was Dr. Arnold. The crudest material under his plastic influence began to assume noble outlines, and the fine

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marble was transformed into an Olympian Zeus, or prophetic Apollo. Horace Mann could show very rare workmanship if you gave him marble and bronze, or even granite; and he could tell others how to work in clay, but his own tight grasp seemed to crush these yielding materials.

The great element of success in our artist-artisan, is his ability to see how, in the material at hand, the ideal is to be best expressed. If he has granite, he is to aim at noble proportions and massive grandeur; if fine marble, he need not stop short of the highest human excellence; if crumbling limestone, he is to aim at present utility, rather than permanent effect; if only clay, he must give a graceful moulding and wait for the effect of the gradual heat. Each product has its own standard of merit, and that it shall serve its best purpose in the varied social machinery that is working out human excellence, is all that is desired. Our artist-artisan differs from the artisan in this, that he can conceive ideals, that he is not confined to the imitation of furnished models; and he differs from the pure artist in this, that he is less rigid and absolute. He demands the best, but always with the modern proviso: "under the present circumstances." He has such practical insight that while he holds in his mind the generic ideals, he can detect in the varying materials the differentiating tendencies that give seperate species. The greatest teacher is he who discriminates between the normal curves of healthful growth, and the unnatural tortions that result from unbalanced external influences, who sees what manner of spirit is trying to develop itself in the forms about him, and, taking care to neither warp or crush, wisely directs it to its noblest possibilities.

It is, perhaps, the most difficult problem in teaching to determine the true ratio of the artist and artisan elements—to get the proper adjustment between the public demand and the highest social need.

Unquestionably, it is the province of the teacher to improve the national ideals of manhood and womanhood, as much as it is the province of the manufacturer to improve the material wares. In the division of national industry this department is assigned them.

The manufacturer may know how to construct an implement of rare excellence, but he finds it bad economy to throw it upon the market if the public do not know how to use it. In the same way the teacher finds himself restricted, and forced to aim at the highest use rather than the highest idea. He learns that he can not improve the implements of progress faster than he can provide a use; that the supply must not get far in advance of the demand. But inasmuch as his implements are intelligences, they become their own manipulators, and from this basis there is little limit to the improvement he may make. He may furnish the highest humanities; but these humanities must know how to use themselves.

Teachers' Institutes, all associations of teachers, are for the purpose of developing the science of pedagogy in its two-fold relation to the artisan and artist, to methods and aims. In county conventions and minor associations, the attention is mainly directed to methods, effective plans for imparting knowledge. The teachers come together from neighboring localities and are familiar with nearly the same science, hence can not be expected to hold very different views in regard to the public demands; as a consequence, their time is most profitably spent in considering the means of attaining generally recognized aims. In the State and national

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conventions, we come together from more widely separated regions, from different social outlooks, bringing different views of the great social needs, and hence may profitably enter upon the broader discussion of educational aims. In view of this, I have ventured to speak of a few things wherein it seems to me our American system of education is defective and ought to be improved.

I have for a long time felt that certain phases of mental discipline were deplorably neglected in our schools. I was brought to this feeling, not so much from my experience and observation in teaching, as from seeing certain defects in the mental habits of our people, which it seemed to me our schools should do something to correct, or, at least, should not especially foster; and recently this impression has become much more tangible through some observation and study of foreign school systems.

I shall at present speak of four points: Bad memories, the guessing tendency, undue personal influence of the teacher, and an overmastering desire for popular effect.

I am aware that the suggestion of these themes will bring at once the response, that these are faults inherent in our national life, and are the necessary results of our social and political institutions; but I have forestalled this reply by telling you at the outset that my views respecting these matters have grown out of my observation of our people in their intellectual and business life; secondly, by assuming that the peculiar work of these large teachers' conventions is to discuss the relations of the schools to the national social needs; and, thirdly, by showing that the best teaching involves the improvement of the popular ideals: that the model teacher must lead rather than obey the popular demand; that he must seize the spirit that informs our American youth and develop it according to its best possibilities. In respect to my first point, every one who is at all familiar with European schools and scholars, knows that there is an immense difference in respect to the cultivation of the memory between their educational results and ours. Their university men bring away from their school-life much more knowledge and far better memories than our young men who have spent the same time and worked with equal earnestness. The same difference will be observed in the results of the schools of the lower grades. The evils attendant upon bad memories are these: they involve a ruinous expenditure of time, and cheat us out of an incalculable amount of thought data. To the scholar, a large part of whose capital is time, a good memory becomes a consideration of inestimable importance, while the comparatively ignorant man feels, that if he could remember all he has heard and read, he would be a much wiser man. The naturalist knows that the larger the number of individual cases he can group into one consideration, the more unquestionable are his inductive generalizations; and as correct judgments largely depend upon the accurate retention of the impressions gained by observation and experience, it is evident that a good memory furnishes the indispensable requisites for sound reasoning. It is sometimes said, "This man's excellent memory preludes occasions for originality." This I shall answer in two ways: 1st. When a thing is already known it is generally not worth while for another man to spend time to discover it. If an American had invented a lightning-rod, it were of no possible advantage to the world that a Frenchman should repeat the invention. The Frenchman had better spend his time in discovering how to manage his

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"balloon." That is, invention is of no value to the world unless the inventor presents something better than has been offered before. I admit that *all* invention is valuable to the inventor; but there is generally sufficient scope for his energies in *new* lines, where he may not only go through valuable processes, but bring out valuable results. Let him follow the beaten paths to the highest points that have been gained, and from there look out for forward ones.

I am aware that you will say this dependence upon leadership unfits a man to select a path for himself, when the occasion demands it, and I admit it: at the same time I assure you that Americans are in nowise liable to incur this danger unless in very exceptional cases, and that it is the *other* extreme that we have occasion to guard them against. My second answer is, that fulness of knowledge does not legitimately preclude originality. It is very true that certain methods of study cultivate the memory, without cultivating equally the invention, but it is seldom at the expense of the invention. Fresh oxygen seizes greedily upon the substances with which it comes in contact; just so it is the nature of a fresh bit of knowledge to combine in full proportional equivalency with other bits of knowledge in its neighborhood, and thus new combinations arise. There is a certain inevitableness in this result, though neither chemist nor metaphysician has as yet explained the process. Men of unfailing memories, but of stumbling logic and halting invention, oftener owe this to a natural cast of mind that pre-determined them to this condition, than to particular training. I am sure no one will deny the broad general statement that, other things being equal, the wider the data of knowledge, the more accurate the reasoning and reliable the conclusions. Our judgments are derived from data drawn from reading, conversation, observation and experience. The data got in the first two ways may, when lost, be fairly restored by a sufficient outlay of time; but this time might otherwise be spent in acquiring additional data. The data derived from observation and experience can, at most, only be very partially restored, and even then, in this case, are open to the same objections as the first, that they demand a fresh investment of time. At best, then, I think we must say that bad memories are altogether too expensive indulgences, and that we, as educators, have occasion to study a better intellectual economy, so that we may send our pupils into life with a larger accumulation of facts and principles, and with memories that will add rapidly to that store from the every-day experiences of life. Do not misunderstand me. I do not propose that we give more time to facts and principles and less to processes than we now do, but that we give such mental discipline as shall enable the pupils better to retain the facts and principles they learn at school, and also give them greater facility for retaining those that they subsequently acquire. I propose that there be more decided effort to cultivate the memory, which I believe may be readily done without detriment to any other work we are now doing. To this end, I suggest that we make very scanty use of *formal reviews*, and, instead, make the pupil feel that to-day's lesson is the lesson for any and every subsequent day, that after it is once learned, it is always to be known. This can be done by calling it up, but in irregular and unexpected ways, and then attaching as heavy penalties for failure as though it were yesterday's lesson; but this needs to be supported by a second method, namely, a freer use of the lecture system, which I think should be begun in the lowest grade.

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When the pupil has read his first sentence, let the teacher link some other idea to that, and when he goes over the sentence again the next day, let him be required to give the teacher's addition. Let him understand from the outset that he is to remember what the teacher says as accurately as he would an errand with which he had been commissioned by his mother. Let there be no lesson without this supplemental instruction; but this must be strictly an elaboration of the lesson, that is, the pupil's lesson must be the natural groundwork of the lecture; and I am of the opinion that great pains should be taken to keep out irrelevant matter. It should be like the limbs and leaves and blossoms growing out of the trunk of the tree under the influence of the sunshine and genial air. In this way the impression becomes vivid and the connection necessary, and if the teacher persistently makes the demand, his instructions will be reproduced by the pupil with great accuracy the next day.

You will readily see that this plan, not only proposes to *lose* nothing from our present system, but offers very great gain, aside from the cultivation of the memory. The pupil learns to use books; at the same time he acquires the habit of seeing bare trunks of facts develop into living, blossoming, reproductive organisms; and from this habit his own invention and calculation will acquire great facility in producing this transformation for itself. Having begun this method at the very first, the teacher will, I think, find no place where he can wisely leave it off, though he will find the necessity for reviews constantly vanishing. I am satisfied that these bad memories result largely from our almost exclusive use of the text-book system of instruction. Whatever may be said in favor of its general excellence, or its necessity in our American schools, it is still open to the very great objection that a pupil is never forced to remember a subject from one presentation. He knows where it is to be found, and he can look it over any time he chooses. If he can remember it long enough to recite it to-day, he can revise it for tomorrow's lesson, and a third time for the next day's lesson. It is impossible to force the memory into a corner where it must turn and fight. It constantly runs away and comes back refreshed.

MARY E. BEEDY.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

IV.

OF MODIFICATION OF THE COPULA BY INTONATION, BY PAUSE, BY EMPHASIS, AS THE FOLLOWING EXAMPLES SHOW:

"My son! put the horse in the stable." "My son put the horse in the stable" (yesterday.)

"My son! will you put my horse in the stable?" This last, according to the tone, may vary from a mild, interrogative command to a solicitation in interrogative form.

"My son! please put my horse in the stable." The word "please" is imperative, modifying "put;" yet it solicits, which may be increased more or less by intonation. Dwelling on or lightly passing over "please" increases or diminishes the solicitation.

"Do put, or do please put my horse in the stable," becomes begging. The pause, emphasis, tone of command, of solicitation, of begging, tell plainly the

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modification of the copula. The most ignorant understand it.

OF THE MODES AND TENSES OF THE VERB REPRESENTED BY LETTERS, SYLLABLES, AND WORDS:

The modes and tenses of verbs are shown by changes of letters and syllables. Prefixes and suffixes and the changes of initial, medial, and final letters and syllables make corresponding changes in the modes and tenses of the verb, manifesting thereby so many modifications of the copula. Languages whose verbs are so inflexible, that the modifications of the copula cannot be manifested in them, effect such changes by words taking the name of auxiliaries. They are modifiers, working the same changes as the copula in flexible languages works without them. The verb "let" expresses the imperative of the verb it modifies, which in other instances is effected by the copula in the verbs "let us go," "allous," "vamos," "eamus," "come go we now."

Languages having the most flexible verbs are more or less limited, using some of their verbs to modify others, just as the so-called English auxiliaries modify the verb in the infinitive or the participle following them. It would be preferable to call such modal and tense verbs, rather than auxiliaries.

OF THE ENGLISH VERB AND SOME OF ITS CHARACTERISTICS.

Some modal changes in the English verb are effected by the subject's being made to follow the verb, or rather, (according to the nomenclature of this analysis,) the subject in the nominative cases being made to follow it. The subjunctive, conditional, optative, imperative, and interrogative are sometimes so formed.

The copula is one of the powers of the mind essential to forming and using language. The active, passive, and middle voices are so many manifestations of this power. The voices are in the mind before they are manifested in the forms of the verb. Propositions being conceived as active or passive, the verb takes a form to show it. The same form, however, sometimes expresses both an active and a passive sense. The English verb consists of present and past tenses of the indicative and subjunctive, and the infinitive, generally known by the particle "to" to distinguish it from nouns and the perfect and imperfect participles.

The perfect participle of transitive verbs is naturally passive. The imperfect participle is both active and passive, as, "He is writing a letter," "The letter is writing." The participle in "ing" was originally passive, the active form was in "ind," or in "inde," and the "de" being dropped, it became "in," until fashion stigmatizing the ending "in" as vulgar, replaced the lost "d" by "g," making the active and passive forms the same, and giving rise to such bungling expression as, "The letter is being written."

The function of the participles in many languages is to form predicates for sub-propositions. In English they can be modified so as to be predicates to principal propositions. The imperfect participle denotes progression and incompletion; the perfect participle denotes completion. The participle "being" of the verb "to be," modifies a perfect participle so as to make it imperfect and progressive, instead of perfect and complete, as, "The house is being built" for the better form, "The house is building." The copula of participles is termed sub-copula because of its function. The copula in the tense verb "have," modifies the sub-copulas of perfect participles into principal copulas and, in transitive verbs, changes the passive into the active voice. In the sentence, "The letter

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written by my brother lies on the table;" "written" is passive and the predicate of a sub-proposition, which is the subject of the principal proposition. "My brother has written a letter." In this sentence "written" has been made active by the tense-verb "has," the two verbs "has written" forming the predicate of a principal proposition, and changing both the voice of "written" and its sub-copula into a principal.

The tense-verb "to have" modifies the sub-copulas of all perfect participles into principal copulas, and the passive voice into the active.

The verb "to be," in all its forms, simple and complete, so modifies a perfect participle as to change it from being the predicate of a sub-proposition to become that of a principal, without changing its voice.

The imperfect participle modified by the verb "to be" is more generally used in the active voice, denoting progression and incompletion. It may also have a passive meaning. Good taste requires that a passive meaning, imperfect or progressive, should be expressed by the imperfect participle modified by the verb "to be."

"The house is building" is as unequivocal as, "The house is being built," and much more elegant.

In French the reflexive verb has a passive voice, as *La maison se bâtit ; domus ædificature.*

The imperfect participle is the foundation of the progressive form of the English verb.

The perfect participle is the foundation of all the English complex tenses having the sense of completion. It is passive in its nature; but may be made active by the tense and voice modifying it.

The perfect participle and the simple past tenses of the indicative mode are often identical in form, differing only in meaning. There is a tendency in them to interchange, which some critics regard with favor.

There is a class of intransitive verbs in English, whose complex tenses may be formed by both the tense modifiers "to be" and "to have." The following are some of them:

To come, go, arrive, depart, flee, fly, arise, rise, set, sit, escape, return, fall, ascend, descend, and probably others; *have* implying the active agency of the subject, while *be* expresses its state as belonging to the subject as a state of existence.

The imperfect participle, whether modified by the verb "to be" or not, is used to express a single unfinished progressive act, or state or condition of existence.

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

SELF-DETERMINATION.

Thou art—in world is none like thee;
Thou hold'st the germ of fruit and tree,
Whose taste falls new on touching lips,
Whose shade girds round with new eclipse.

The small, fair bloom lurks deep in grass,
Nor heeds what feet beside it pass,
Content to drink the light and air,
And its slight cup for dew upbear.

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The cloud sails through the deep-domed sky,
And laughs, made fair with sun; though nigh
Upon her death in fruitful rain,
She laughs, nor deems of loss and gain.

The silver stream makes murmur sweet,
And times Spring's tune with sinuous feet,
And reaches Summer's burning blue,
Mixed with faint clouds of floating dew.

O soul-flower fair, shed thou thy ray,
Though no eyes see thy little day;
Though no glad feet beside thee pass,
Thou hast the air, and light, and grass.

O soul-cloud, sail across the sky
Made fair with sun; for, know, to die
In slant-lined, fruitful, happy rain
Is, by dim loss, to find large gain.

O soul-stream, in the soul's pure spring
Her slender carols help to sing,
And with the passioned summer dew
Re-mount to thy wide, native blue.

Thou art—in thee the world grows ripe,
She listens for thy lyre or pipe;
In thee the ages bud and bloom,
In thee God finds glad, ample room.

Thou art—thy deed makes pale the stars,
The world unloosens bolts and bars,
Athwart the void her limits reach,
And outward grows her hungry beach.

LEWIS J. BLOCK.

ALPHABETS FOR THE BLIND.

EDITORS WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW:

In your December number you published an article entitled "The Education of the Blind," written by H. R. Foster. I here take the liberty of making a few corrections of the author's mistakes, and, I am sorry to add, misrepresentations:

In speaking of the Braille system, Mr. Foster says: "The advocates of the line system were decidedly opposed to this new point system, for its characters were unlike any characters used in print for the seeing." This is the same objection some teachers in this country made when I introduced the Braille system here. Yet, soon afterwards, the more liberal educators of the blind in Iowa, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Pennsylvania, &c., adopted that system. For the same trivial reason, the Hebrew, Greek, or German characters might be objected to, inasmuch as they all differ from the characters in common use.

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In the first place, Mr. F. gives the Braille system incorrectly. I give below some of the characters used by Braille:

U	V	X	Y	Z	C	Eoin	&
⠁	⠃	⠭	⠽	⠵	⠉	⠑⠕⠊⠝	⠯

The characters for some of the same letters given by Mr. Foster are as follows:

U	V	W	X	Y	Z	&
⠥	⠧	⠺	⠭	⠽	⠵	⠯

These are the forms employed by me in my re-arrangement of the Braille system, of which I shall have more to say hereafter. Mr. Foster thinks, perhaps, that *Aquila non captat muscas*, but others differ from him.

His objections to the letters k, m, and w, I never experienced with my pupils, although I taught six years. His objections to the comma, as used with the letters a, k, and l, and also with the letters e, o, and r, or to the semi-colon, as used with the letters a and b, and also with the letters s and t are equally forceless. The characters are these:

a	e	k	o	l	r
⠁	⠑	⠅	⠕	⠇	⠗

a	s	b	t
⠁	⠎	⠃	⠞

I have given above the exact distances between the dots. It is clear that when the type-setter does his share of the business properly, no ambiguity can arise.

The line which F. describes it was only necessary to trace in the Boston type, as several letters extended above and below the middle space, for instance, b, m and p; hence, the Philadelphia type had the advantage over the Boston.

In printing, the Braille system, for letters, marks of punctuation, figures, algebraic and musical characters, requires seventy different types. I invented, in 1863, the so-called "Braille type," which requires but five different types for all the characters. This type is now used in various institutions in this country. For it, moreover, I received a patent from the United States Government.

In the French system, with its seventy types, it is almost impossible for a blind person to become a type-setter. My invention enables the blind person, practising two hours per day during two years, to set at least between 800 and 1,000 types.

The Principal of the Missouri Institution, in his report of 1865, in regard to the above says: "The desired end has been attained by an invention at once simple and ingenious, *the credit of which is due to Prof. Robyn.* It was found that by dividing the space allotted to a letter in the dot alphabet from top to bottom, the dots could be so arranged on five types as to give all the necessary combinations. It will be understood that two of these side by side form a letter. Variously arranged in pairs, they give the alphabet, the numerals, the punctuation-points, the algebraic signs, and all the characters used in music. The types have been cast and the press obtained. The process of printing can hardly be more simplified. The blind readily learn to set type from "copy," to print and to distribute. It is thought that with practice they may be able to set up a page of the size of their printing-frame now in use, seven by ten inches, in one hour. *Two hundred impressions are easily made in one hour.* Rev. Dr. Post, in his report in 1868 to the Legislature, says in regard to the above: "Prof. Robyn has *invented* and *successfully* used a printing-press for striking off copies of music-pieces and school-books in Braille. The invention

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promises to mark a new era in the education of the blind.

Five years ago, the Rev. Dr. Post, J. E. Yeatman, Esq., George Partridge, Esq., Dr. S. Pollak, and others, then Trustees of the Missouri Institution for the Education of the Blind, acknowledged the usefulness of the Braille system and of my mode of printing the same. Mr. Foster, who holds a place in the said Institution, does not know that such things were ever in existence! In 1863, the Trustees were proud of the fact that the Institution was equal to similar ones at Paris, Lansaune, Amsterdam, Brussels, Copenhagen, and Madrid; they even bestowed on me the honorable title of Benefactor of the Blind. They passed a resolution in which they said: "It is through his intelligence, industry, and enthusiastic zeal that the Institution has been so elevated." And in 1862 the Committee of the House of Representatives, in their report, spoke as follows:

"The so-called Braille system has been applied with astonishing success. We must not neglect to award our highest tribute to the intelligent managers, who, by their own exertions, and by the use of the *Braille system* of teaching, have made the Blind Asylum the pride of our State; an institution which stands unsurpassed in this country, and can safely challenge even the long established asylums of Europe. If the Braille method could be ordered to be adopted by every blind asylum in the Union, it would at once make a period of great progress, and would vastly benefit the community of these unfortunate blind through all the States."

What would they say to-day, should some of the trustees again visit institutions abroad, (as they did in 1860 and 1861,) and report as they then did?

When I left the institute in 1866, there were on hand several printed volumes of music, a musical dictionary, and hundreds of pages of reading matter. Now a man at the head of the same institute, says: "To-day, after a lapse of nearly a century from Hauy's invention, the blind are wihout a *single book* worthy the name." In Boston and Philadelphia, the Bible, Paradise Lost, and almost every useful work has been printed for the blind, printed entire, not condensed and abbreviated, as Mr. F. states; in Paris, the library for the blind may almost be called complete, not only in its selection of school-books but also of books on every variety of subjects; even Beethoven's entire works are accessible in the Braille type. Of all these facts Mr. F. seems to know nothing. Who is to blame if the institute has not all the necessary printed books? Surely ample means were provided for the purpose.

After various questions, Mr. F. closes by suggesting the use of some characters as marks of punctuation in connection with the N. Y. letters. "Only twenty-four different types are necessary for printing the letters, numerals, and marks of punctuation." The reader will note the immense gain of substituting twenty-four types for five. How many additional types will be needed for the algebraic and musical characters? Or are the higher studies and music thought useless to the blind?

The Wait *system*, as Mr. F. calls it, is nothing more than an irregular repetition of the really systematic Braille letters. He says: "The two-line or horizontal sign instead of the three-line or vertical sign must be used in order to condense the book." Let us see. Of the twenty-six letters of the

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alphabet, eight, in the W. arrangement occupy more space than the same in the Braille, thus:

a b c f g h j k

eleven occupy the same space, thus:

d e m p q u v w x y z

and the remaining 7, (e, i, n, o, r, s, t,) occupy less space. It seems clear that six dots placed thus, ⁝⁝ will occupy the same space as six dots placed thus, :::

Let us look further. In the Braille arrangement we begin with one dot; that is A. B is two dots placed vertically; C is two dots placed horizontally; D is C with a dot placed under the dot on the right; E is A with a dot placed obliquely to the right; F is D reversed; G is C doubled; H, I, and J are F, E, and D, respectively, upside down. This is the key to the whole alphabet. The next ten letters are the first ten, respectively, with an additional dot in the lower groove. The last six letters are repetitions of the first six, with two additional dots. I add examples of these last formations: a ·, k :, u :.

The value of this system with reference to facility of instruction is apparent. The W. alphabet is nothing else than the Braille confused and disordered. Instead of following the order of the letters a, b, c, &c. W. has them thus: c, p, s, d, a, l, v, q, b, r, p, h, f, c, i, s, p, j, e, a, l, o, s, x, o, q. Some of the letters are placed upside down. With numerals, instead of 1, 2, 3, &c. W. has 7, 9, 6, 3, 5, 4, 2, 0, 8, 1. Any teacher in the first hour of work will see the impracticability of the W. arrangement. Also in the W. method, how shall the pupil discern the difference between 1 and the 2 and 0, 8 and r, 9 and h, &c.?

On the Boston and Philadelphia methods, to learn the alphabet well, generally took the pupils from six to ten months. It seldom took me more than an hour to teach them the Braille letters. How long it would take to teach them such unsystematic arrangements of dots and angles, as Mr. F. proposes, it would be difficult to say with any certainty.

In conclusion, let me give Mr. Foster a little piece of advice. If he find it needful to make up his articles largely of quotations as heretofore, it would be well to make liberal use of the customary quotation-marks. Moreover, I beg him, for his own sake, to hold his peace on this head. In respect of a matter to which he has evidently given so little attention, and which he so imperfectly understands, the attitude of a learner would much better become him than that of a critic and law-giver. Let him beware lest he make patent to all men how little fitted he is for the position he holds, and how apt an illustration of the old truism that the best means of attaining the most desirable results, become of no avail in the hands of incapable persons.

H. ROBYN.

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Editors' Department.

If our State University do not prosper, it will not be the fault of its President. With the most liberal and advanced views on education, and the utmost readiness to keep pace with all improvements in the science of pedagogy, Dr. Read evinces a truly American desire to see every citizen, of whatever sex or condition, have the means of developing himself to the highest possible degree placed within his reach. The following extract from a forthcoming report, which we have been permitted to print, will show the ground that Dr. Read takes on a most important question—one which is likely soon to be canvassed on another plane than that on which it moves at present. In regard to this vital question, there is, in view of Dr. Read's statements, nothing left for us to say, except to testify our heartiest approbation of the cause which he so warmly advocates in season and out of season—which is also in season.

We should, however, desire to add a word concerning our State University generally. If there is any State in the Union that has an opportunity of establishing a great University—one that shall be the solar centre of higher education in this the land of all men's future—that State is Missouri. Her geographical situation, her enormous resources, her mixed people—so largely impregnated with the brain-blood of knowledge-loving Germany,—her excellent system of public schools, all contribute to give her this opportunity, and call upon her not to let it slip. Here the yoke of the past lies lightly upon us; we are free to follow the dictates of reason in education as in everything else, and it will be our own fault if we do not place education on a higher basis than it has ever before occupied. As a step toward this consummation, we hope our legislators will respond readily to the reasonable demand about to be made on them, and appropriate the needful funds to make the women of Missouri mates meet for the men.

The committee are of the opinion that we are fully prepared to take a step in advance of what we have already done, in the direction of opening the advantages of the University to the women of the State. We have felt our way with extreme caution on this subject. We at first admitted female pupils to the Normal College of the University. They were not admitted to worship in the chapel at our daily convocation, nor to recite with classes in the University building. At length, the chapel doors were opened to them and they were permitted to join their voices in the morning song of praise. Then, as they were prepared, recitation and lecture rooms were one by one opened to them. This was done without the formal vote of either the board of curators or the faculty. It was found that they did us no harm. Women are now admitted in the limited number that come, to all the advantages of the University precisely as young men. The professors without exception bear testimony that this has been done with decided advantage to the good order and proprieties of the whole body of University students. But it is manifest that women cannot have the full advantages of the University unless a home shall be provided for them, while resident as students, nor will they, without such provision, in any considerable number, avail themselves of the advantanges of the University. Yet we have had a sufficient number (from thirty to forty) to make the experiment full and complete. It has been a success beyond all expectation. Prejudice itself is disarmed.

What shall be the next step toward giving the women of the State the full advantages of the University? The committee cannot hesitate. The leadings of Providence are manifest. Your committee proposed and recommended the organization and establishment of a College to be denominated the University College for Women. They proposed also, that one or two acres from the horticultural ground shall be set aside, and dedicated as a site for the College edifice.

The site which the committee proposed is beautiful and commanding, elevated in position, with

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prospects extending in every direction—within the distance of a single square from the main University edifice and Scientific Building already in progress, and in immediate connection with the University gardens. On this site the committee propose to erect the College for women, and to do so within the shortest possible time; and for the means, to call upon the Legislature, at its present session, to make the necessary appropriation, as the grestest boon they can bestow upon the women of the State, and the first appropriation ever asked for their special benefit. Your committee need not say the building should be in style and appointments in every way suited to its whole object. The Legislature of Wisconsin at its last session made an appropriation of $50,000 for the erection of an edifice for the Womens' College of the University of that State. Your committee feel assured that the Legislature of Missouri will not withhold State aid for such an object, and recommend that a memorial be prepared by the board of curators, asking the consideration and action of the Legislature in this behalf.

The committee do not see that beyond the expense of the building, any additional outlay will be required for this College. Here are the means and appointments of instruction already provided in ample measure—professors, libraries, laboratories, apparatus, art collections, and gardens. Besides, all the growing and accumulating means of the University from year to year and age to age will be open to the women of the State. A regard to simple economic principles, requires that all the advantages of the University be fully utilized, and forbids two sets of instruments—one for male and another for female students. Besides, there will be a higher inspiration to women when permitted to enjoy all and the same advantages accorded to the other sex, and to enter into intellectual struggles with them. Can any one conceive a higher claim to the affections of the families of the State, than a legislature would have, thus offering to their sons and daughters equally, all the advantages of the State University, and upon terms bringing these great advantages within their means?

The committee do not propose a specific curriculum of study and art-practice for this school. All other departments and instructions of the University must be open to its members. Horticulture, chemistry, the art of teaching in its highest forms, and other branches of art, science, and industry, should form a part of the practical education to be provided for this College.

The whole nation has been filled with admiration at the great bequest by John Simmons, of Boston, of a million and a half of dollars for the establishment of an institution for the education of women in those arts which may render them more independent in procuring a livelihood. No more beneficent object can be presented to the philanthropist or political economist to work out for the good of society.

We can present here in our own State University far greater and even more costly advantages for the women of Missouri, (and we can do it almost immediately,) than those which will be afforded by this endowment, magnificent in amount, as it is, and requiring as it certainly will, years of time to erect buildings, secure proper teachers, and make the necessary oollections. Every great institution of learning requires time as an element of its existence. Colleges, it has been said, are the trees of centuries; our age and country have fortunately shown that this is not strictly true. They are, however, the trees of decades of years—they cannot spring up and be put in full operation in a few days or weeks.

By an expenditure of not $100,000, we can have at once, and in the amplest form, the college for women to be grouped with the other colleges of the State University, and affording to women the comfort and retirement of a home while pursuing studies in art or science. The opportunity is too great to be lost.

THE appointment of Mr .O. M. Baker, of this city, as Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools of Missouri, has met with the greatest favor throughout the State.

Mr. Baker is a native of New York, and was educated at Alfred University in that State. He has had many years experience as a teacher in Milwaukee and other cities, and is a thoroughly accomplished conductor of Teachers' Institutes. While in Wisconsin, he was President of the State Teachers' Association, and is said to have been the most popular President the Association ever had. We do not call to mind any gentleman who possesses more of the necessary qualifications for the position. In the appointment of Mr. Baker, the State Superintendent furnishes another evidence of his own good sense.

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Reviews and Notices.

MANUAL LATIN GRAMMAR. Prepared by WILLIAM J. ALLEN, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages and History in the University of Wisconsin; and JOSEPH H. ALLEN, Cambridge, Mass. Twelfth Edition. Published by *Edwin Ginn*, Boston; and *Fred B. Ginn*, Chicago, 1869:

The little volume of 145 pages—including supplement and index is—as far as paper, type-work, and binding are concerned, all that could be desired. It is a very model of neatness. Not only in these, but in other and more important respects, it has been spoken of almost universally in very favorable terms, and has been introduced into numerous schools, as being a great improvement upon Latin Grammars heretofore in use. The amount of information contained in it has been made the standard for admission into several institutions of very high rank. It is plain, therefore, the work supplied a widely felt want.

That teachers who have been using such clumsy and unscientific works as Andrews' and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, whose use at the present day in our schools is a disgrace, should feel a strong desire for something of a different character, and be ready to grasp at anything which promised relief, is not in the least surprising, and may, in a large measure, account for the unusual success of the *Manual* of Messrs. Allen. For, though the work evidently has a considerable number of points of superiority to the majority of grammars now in use, we are sorry to have to record our conviction that it is still far from being what was desirable, and far from meeting the demand of improved scholarship. It reflects sadly upon the condition of philology in America, and furnishes one more proof that education among us is tending to become more and more flimsy and superficial.

In one of the commendatory notices appended to the *Manual*, occurs the sentence: "It supplies the great desideratum of a brief elementary grammar, at once simple and concise, and, at the same time, accurately embodying the latest results of scholarship." Here are stated the requisites of a good grammar, but we are sorry to say they cannot be to any great extent predicated of Messrs. Allen's production. We do not know whether Messrs. Allen are acquainted with the recent works on Latin Grammar by German scholars, the only ones who of late years have done anything of importance in this direction; but no such acquaintance is claimed in the preface or apparent in the work. It may be said that the results of German scholarship, could not with advantage be embodied in a school-grammar. Anyone who will examine Curtins' *Greek Grammar* will see to what extent such an objection can be met.

One great aim which Messrs. Allen seem to have set before themselves, is, brevity at all hazards. Brevity is the universal demand of the hurried, superficial education at present in vogue, and they seem to have been anxious to meet the same. We do not mean to deny that brevity is a most desirable thing at any time, provided it can be reached without too much sacrifice. But there are two ways of attaining brevity, the one scientific, the other merely slovenly. The former accomplishes the end by replacing masses of disconnected, seeming facts, burdensome to the memory, by the principle governing them, the latter by omitting a large number of these facts and making a part do duty for the whole. Messrs. Allen's *Manual* attains brevity in almost every case by the latter method. If it is shorter than Andrews and Stoddard's Grammar, it is not because it is more scientific, but because it contains less information. If its rules are more brief, it is because they are less exact. We do not therefore hesitate to say that the use of it would make very superficial scholars.

The authors, finding probably that they had originally overshot the mark in the matter of brevity, have added to their *Manual* proper, which occupies 120 pages, a supplement of 18 pages "designed for the use of teachers." This looks rather suspicious, more particularly since some of the statements in the supplement directly contradict others in the body of the book. We cannot imagine for what kind of teachers the supplement is designed. If there is any teacher of Latin who does not know all that it contains, we should advise him to change his profession.

> "For little way his learning reaches
> Who knows no more than what he teaches."

The *Manual* is divided into sections, which are numbered. Section 1. pretends to treat of the alphabet, but in fact treats of several things besides. The four paragraphs of it upon page 2. are out of place. The first treats of antiquated spelling; the second of euphonic change; the third of elision; the fourth of syllabication; so that all the information given on these four subjects in the *Manual* proper is contained in seventeen lines, under the head of *alphabet!* Section 2., on pronunciation, occupies twelve lines. This seems to have been a little too much brevity even for Messrs. Allen, so, in their supplement, they devote three pages and a

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half to the subject, including under it this time the subject of syllabication. In regard to the latter, the *Manual* and its supplement are in direct contradiction. In the former we are told:

"In the division of syllables, a consonant between two vowels is always written with the latter, as *do-mi-nus, master;* also, any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word; as *hospes, guest; ma-gnus, great;* (except compounds, as *ob-it*)."

The supplement, on the contrary, lays down:

"In the division of syllables, the English method adopts the following exceptions [?] to the rule, given in § 1 [above quoted]—

"*a.* A single consonant after any accented vowel in the antepenult, except *u* is joined with it: as *Mon'itus lu'cibus.*

"But not with *a, e, o,* when the single consonant, or a mute with *l* or *r*, is followed by two vowels, the first of which is *e, i,* or *y*: as, *mo'neo, pa'tria.*

"*b.* In all other cases, two consonants between two vowels are separated: as, *mag'nus* [!], *Pat'ribus.*"

But to return to the alphabet. If there is any point which the student of a language should learn thoroughly at the outset, it is the exact value of the letters, and their classification according to the organs which produce the sounds they represent. Much of his future course will thus be smoothed, and the rules for euphonic change made easy of comprehension. Our authors' classification of the letters is very meagre and unsatisfactory. The consonants are divided merely into mutes and liquids, although that classification serves no purpose whatever in the Latin language. The remark, "But *m* may be classed as a labial," is very innocent. If such be the case, why may not *n* be classed as a lingual or a palatal? What is meant by saying, "The aspirate, *h*, is merely a *silent* breathing, and is not reckoned as a consonant?" Schleicher and other eminent German philologists class *h*, not only as a consonant, but as a sonant. Messrs. Allen must have been thinking of the part which *h* plays in scanning. If they imagine that *h* was silent in Latin, as it is in Italian, we advise them to read the famous epigram of Catullus, beginning "*Chommoda dicebat,*" &c. As showing what might be done in a small space towards giving a scientific and comprehensive view of the Latin alphabet, it may not be out of place to give Schleicher's table as it stands in his *Compendium of the Compar. Gram. of the Indo-Ger. Languages*, p. 79:

CONSONANTS.						VOWELS.		
Momentary Sounds. Unaspirated.		Continuous Sounds. Spirants.		Nasals.	*r l Sounds.*			
Surd.	*Sonant.*	*Surd.*	*Son.*	*Sonant*	Sonant.			
Gut. *c q*	*g*		*h*	*n*		*a* *ā*	*e, ē ă*	*o*
pal.	*j*					*i* *ī*		
ling.					*r* *l*		*ă*	
dent. *t*	*d*	*s*		*n*				
lab. *p*	*b*	*f*	*v*	*m*		*u* *ū*		

The *Manual* sums up its history of the Latin alphabet thus:

"The earlier alphabet consisted of 21 letters, viz:—

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, x;

y and *z* were added in words derived from Greek."

The word "earlier" here conveys no distinct idea. After a pupil has enumerated the letters of the "earlier" alphabet, a careful teacher, who sees that every word is fully understood, will, in all probability, ask, "What do you mean by "earlier?" What answer shall the pupil give? It is true that the *earliest* known Latin alphabet consisted of 21 letters, but they ran *a, b, g, d, e, f, z,* &c., the rest as above. (See Corssen, *Ueber Aussprache, Vokalismus und Betonung der lat. Sprache*, Vol. I., p. 4, First Edition). At a later period, the Latin alphabet was as Messrs. Allen give it, and it would have been interesting and instructive to trace the changes it underwent in the meanwhile. We might then have learnt why the initials of Gaius and Gneius were written C. and Cn. respectively, and not G. and Gn.; and the authors might have avoided the mistake they make in regard to the orthography of these names, p. 120. (See Zumpt's

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Latin Grammar, p. 5; American Edit. Harpers, 1855; Corssen, *Aussprache*, &c., p. 6; Donaldson, *Varronianus*, p. 340.) There are no names *Caius* and *Cneius*.

Section 3, on Quantity, consists of ten lines. Even these are not free from mistake. The rule that "A vowel before two consonants or a double consonant is long," though often repeated, is utterly false and misleading. We had thought the days for such ridiculous rules were past. Do Messrs. Allen really imagine that the *e* in *est* is long, or that we must read *et* as if it were *ēt* when the following word begins with a consonant? The consonants that follow or precede a vowel have nothing whatever to do with its quantity, though they may have something to do with that of the syllable in which it stands. The *e* in *grex* is short, that in *rex* is long, yet both words are counted long syllables. Consonants have quantity as well as vowels, and it takes longer to pronounce two than one. (See Rumpelt, *Das naturliche System der Sprachlaute*, p. 108, seq.) We know from Greek transcriptions that the *e* in *censor* was long, independently of the fact that it is followed by two consonants.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS FOR JANUARY.

The Maine Journal of Education speaks in favor of mixed schools. Its articles are generally on hackneyed subjects, and its book-notices very undiscriminating. We are glad to see it speak disparagingly of self-reporting.

The National Normal has no original articles of much value. The best of its contents are borrowed from the Cincinnati and Boston School Reports. It speaks out boldly against object-teaching. The article on *Realism* by Julia Wheatley is good, but out of place. *Freed Children in Virginia*, a selection from *Our Young Folks*, is amazingly funny.

Messrs. Schermerhorn & Co., of New York, will publish within a few months *Vol. I of the American Educational Annual*, giving a general review of the condition, progress, and prospects of education in the United States and throughout the world. It promises to be a complete and reliable year-book of educational statistics. Such a thing is greatly needed.

The American Educational Monthly (J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., New York,) is the best educational periodical in the country. It comes to us with the new year, increased in bulk and improved in appearance. It is no longer a professional journal for teachers only, but is calculated to interest parents, and general readers as well.

Education at Home and Abroad.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The *Monthly Association* of the teachers of this city met at the High School on Saturday the 14th inst. at 10 o'clock, A. M.

Mr. Cooney, the Chairman, being absent, Mr. J. A. Gillan was chosen to preside.

Some appropriate exercises in music were conducted by Mr. H. C. Butler.

Mr. Harris, superintendent, referred to the important subject of ventilation. The teachers should exercise judgment in regard to this matter. "The new buildings can be well ventilated, by means of the flues, without lowering the windows.

"Thermometers are now furnished for all the schools. The teachers are requested to keep the temperature about 68° Fahrenheit.

"In teaching spelling, select such words as have no analogy in sound. The speller in use has lists of words having similar vowel sounds and terminations,—these, if learned in order, will paralyze the memory and destroy the pupils' ability to remember the spelling of words.

"Teachers should note carefully the progress made in drawing, and when the first set of cards is completed, take the second.

"During my visits the past month, I found the schools in a better condition than they have been at any previous time—there is more efficiency in all the grades. This is chiefly owing to the fact that the principals have not so much class-teaching in their own rooms, and have more time to supervise the whole school—to observe the methods and efficiency of the assistants—to advise and assist the inexperienced—thus rendering effective the work in every room, by seeing that the work of one teacher will not be lost by the inefficiency of the teacher in the next room above, and that no teacher will be compelled to suffer from work badly performed in a room below her.

"This work of the principal is incomparably more valuable to the school than the teaching of a class in his own room, or in performing clerical work. This work of supervision requires more directive power, more brain-work, than teaching, and is much

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more arduous. In the lower grades some instruction ought to be given in physiology—teaching the children some plain principles, relating to their bodies and to the formation of proper habits of life."

Copies of a very valuable lecture delivered by Dr. Eliot at Sedalia, at the State Teacher's Association, entitled "Woman's work and Education in America," and printed at the superintendent's expense, were destributed among the teachers.

It was announced that Normal School applicants would be examined on Monday, Jan. 3d, at 9 A.M., in the Normal School rooms. The applicant must be at least sixteen years old. She must, before examination, sign the following pledge:

"I, the subscriber, hereby declare that it is my intention to devote myself to the business of teaching in the Public Schools of St. Louis for at least two years; that my object in resorting to this Normal School, is the better to prepare myself for this important work. And, I furthermore declare that I intend to continue in the Normal School during the time required for my graduation unless honorably discharged by the committee."

The applicant must pass a satisfactory examination in reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, English grammar and History of the United States.

Mr. Soldan, assistant superintendent of German, remarked that in some rooms the pupils spoke in too low a tone, and did not hold their books high enough when reading. "Concert reading is not beneficient unless well conducted. When questions are asked, the pupils should know who is addressed in the class." He had found some rooms badly ventilated and too warm.

Mr. Frank Cook, Principal of the Douglas School, delivered a very pertinent address. His subject was "The Artizan and Artist." We cannot, in a few brief extracts, give more than an outline of the essay: "Upon the power of estimating the prominence of the part that the *soul* of man plays in *education*, as in all other departments of activity,—is based the distinction between the creative genius and the mechanic, just as its validity is admitted by the one, or unrecognized by the other. This difference with a hint at its solution is the tenor of these remarks.

"The stupidest coal-heaver in the streets is scarcely a worse mechanic than that *teacher* who permits himself to become a passive receptacle for every chance theory that may trickle into him, from this or that lecture-book or pamphlet on education, and who, from a superficial comprehension of the same, must make a more or less bungling application of it in the school-room.

"Notwithstanding the jeers that have been hurled at the innocent head of Metaphysics (so-called), the 'requirements of knowledge will be of little value, until the mind has been trained to look at things from a spiritual stand-point—not as so many isolated facts holding us in perpetual bondage, but as mere creatures, dependent for their life and meaning upon the self-conscious intelligence, or, in other words, upon the principles which they embody. Cardinal Wiseman, in speaking of this subject, shows that those beautiful Etruscan vases, statues, medals, and Mosaics, which we prize so highly, were as common to the ancients as the air they breathed. These paragons of beauty were designed and made by the same poor, obscure workman.

"All the great artists, such as Raffaele and Michael Angelo not only did their own work, but performed what is now called menial labor. Their most humble works are now sought after as priceless specimens of art. It is evident that elevation of art in modern times depends upon a departing from present customs, and combining in the same person the delicate fingers of the artizan with the delicate creations of the artist.

"We have the *pedagogic* artizan who sees nothing higher in his vocation than a mere tread-mill trade or means of livelihood. But far above these are they who in doing *one* thing, however unimportant, do *all;* since in the one deed correctly performed, they see the image of *all* things well done. Blessed with this irresistible power have been those heroes in all ages, who have risen from the ranks, and led the race on to something nobler and better.

"To a man of dignity and philanthropy, with a sense of harmony, symmetry, and of the beautiful, such externals as ventilation, cleanliness of dress, and person, proper carriage, correct attitude, hygiene, obedience, courtesy, and respect, must, like natural laws, subordinate themselves, and challenge reflection to make them better.

"The great thing to be desired is, that the enthusiasm which each one of us is conscious of possessing at times, may become a constantly growing thing, and this permanence can be secured by intellectual culture alone. Goethe says, 'seek the beautiful, and lo! the true and the good will meet thee on the way.' 'Each day read a fine poem, hear a pretty song, and if possible say a few reasonable words.'

"In our American system of education, the majority of teachers fail to recognize the *comparative maturity of the imagination of the young.* This power should be cultivated. Self-culture of the teacher will have its effect in causing the pupil to clothe the dry studies of geography, history, &c.

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with a new interest, in enabling them to realize the scenes, characters and events."

Miss Beedy, of the High School, read a most interesting paper on the *Condition of the Schools in Scotland*. She visited Edinburgh last July, and, while there, witnessed the workings of the best schools in the city. The High School, Academy, and Normal School are said to be as good schools of the kind as are found in the British realm. "I never before saw such teaching as I saw there. An American teacher, who was with me, seemed to be more struck with what we should call disorder than with the teaching. This seems to me one reason why Americans undervalue old-world teaching.

"There is no question but that our schools are much more quiet and orderly, and more comfortable to teach than the schools I saw there, but the pupils there are acquiring more than pupils do in our schools of corresponding grades.

"I saw classes in Latin, History, Grammar, Reading, Arithmetic and Geography.

"In the Arithmetic there was nothing remarkable—but little use of the blackboard. Geometry teahing very similar to our teaching of twenty-five years ago. The teaching of mathematics is not superior to ours, but they give much less time to this branch than we do.

"English Grammar is also taught in the old-fashioned way of parsing, modeled after the pattern of the Latin and Greek Grammar.

"The excellence of the teaching in Latin, History and Spelling was to me truly marvellous. I think that the teachers in Latin generally did not expect the pupils to answer more than one-fifth of the questions asked. And yet they hurled them out like grape-shot from a cannon. They *mark* their pupils *once* or *twice* a week. The recitation is not interrupted, and assumes more or less the character of a lecture. The teacher does not wait for the pupil to answer, neither does he repeat the question.

"It seems to me he accomplishes twice as much as we do at a lesson. The examinations determine the status of the pupil.

"In such a large class, with a teacher so intent on giving instruction, there was, of course, an opportunity for play, and the pupils did not neglect to improve it. The teaching of history was superior to that of any other branch. The lesson was a rapid conversational lecture, with few questions to the pupils, and fewer opportunities to answer. The teacher was master of the theme, was pervaded and animated by it. And he poured it forth with the utmost fervor, while the pupils listened as they would to an old hero relating the stories of wars and civil commotions. The examinations embrace the groundwork of the lecture as well as the text-book.

"In reading, all that is required is a distinct utterance of the words of the printed page. There is no aim at vocal gymnastics or oratorical effect.

"I heard a class of children in their first school year read stories in Natural History. The reading was simply a means to find the meaning of the lesson. I was surprised that children only six and seven years old could tell so much about the habits of animals. The lesson was read and explained the previous day, and the children were required to learn at home all they could from their parents and governesses.

"Our young pupils probably do not study as much as pupils of the same age in European schools. But I do not think the difference in the amount of study will account for the difference in the amount of knowledge acquired. This must be largely owing to difference in methods of teaching. Our mistake is, not employing children with matters of memory and observation during the years when these faculties are proportionally the most active, but, instead, giving a forced development to the reflective and reasoning faculties."

Mr. T. Davidson, of the High School, stated that he wished to form a free class for the study of the Anglo-Saxon language. He would give a series of lectures on the language, showing the change into modern English. A number of the teachers accepted the proposal.

THE meeting of the State Teachers' Association held at Sedalia, on the 27th, 28th and 29th of December last, was in many respects gratifying, and, on the whole, satisfactory to those interested. The attendance was larger than heretofore, and the interest manifested in the essays and discussions commendable. The value of these meetiugs is becoming more apparent, and the interest taken in them, in consequence, on the increase. Still there is ample room left for improvement. It would have been better had a larger delegation from this city been present. We hope to see our teachers do better next time.

The Association convened December 27th, in the High School Building, at 1 o'clock P. M., the President (Prof. C. M. Woodward, of St. Louis.) in the chair. After the usual preliminaries and the choice of a secretary *pro tem*, the Rev. F. A. Kemper, of Boonville, delivered an address on "School Government." The speaker's peculiar views of systems of teaching elicited a very spirited discussion and met with much opposition. In the absence of Miss Mary E. Beedy, of St. Louis, the next essayist, Mr. A. F. Hamilton, Superintendent of Public Schools

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of Jefferson City, read a paper entitled "Hints toward a Reform in Teaching English Grammar." This remarkable effort our readers will find in our present issue and can judge of for themselves. It met with a favorable reception and gave rise to an animated discussion. A resolution was adopted requesting a copy for publication in the "WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW."

Prof. Woodward then called Mr. Ready, of Sedalia, to the chair, and moved to amend the Constitution so as to allow school officers and editors to become members of the Association. The amendments were adopted.

The attendance at the evening meeting was larger than that at any previous one. Mr. George P. Beard delivered the address of welcome, to which the President briefly responded. The evening was given over to flow of soul and flow of speech. There were the usual toasts and the usual happy responses.

On the morrow, at 9 o'clock, the Association met in the Methodist Church.

After the transaction of needful preliminaries, the Association was ready to listen to Prof. J. C. Mason, of Boonville, who read an instructive and valuable paper on the relative importance of mental and written arithmetic as studied in our common school.

Mr. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, in the absence of Mr. Angell, of Hanover, took up his subject, "Phonetics," and gave an interesting account of the phonetic method of teaching reading in St. Louis, and showed its superiority to the word method.

Miss Anna C. Brackett, of St. Louis, then read her paper on "How not to do it."

The Association unanimously requested a copy for publication in THE REVIEW.

The afternoon session was occupied mainly by Superintendent A. J. Sampson, of Sedalia, who read a paper on "The Examination of Teachers," and Mr. Harris, of St. Louis, who spoke on "Visiting Schools." The Superintendents' Association elected a President and Treasurer. Committee on the permanent organization of the Superintendents' Association were appointed. After a lively discussion, a resolution recommending "Leigh's Phonetics" was adopted.

In the evening, Mr. George P. Beard delineated, in a well-written address, "The Coming Teacher." The address was received with much favor and was heartily applauded at its close.

He was followed by the Rev. Dr. W. G. Eliot, of this city. Dr. Eliot announced as his subject "The Educational Wants of American Women." We publish his address as a supplement to this number of THE REVIEW. The doctor's address is something of a surprise; but it is a calm discussion of questions now widely agitating the community. It was received with much enthusiasm.

The proceedings of the third day showed no diminution of interest. At the morning session, Rev. M. H. Smith, of Warrensburg, discoursed upon "Teachers' Institutes." The remainder of the morning was spent in miscellaneous business of importance.

In the afternoon, Miss Beedy's deferred essay on "A Few Defects in the Education of American Women" was read by Miss Brackett. A copy was unanimously requested for publication.

The officers elected for the ensuing year are as follow: Geo. P. Beard, of Sedalia, president; Miss Lucy J. Maltby, of Sedalia, Corresponding Secretary; G. L. Osborne, of Macon, Recording Secretary; H. M. Tallman, of St. Louis, Treasurer. The Vice Presidents are:

First district, Miss Mary E. Beedy, of St. Louis; from the Second, James M. Loring, of St. Louis; Third. J. W. Petit, of Marble Hill; Fourth, J. R. Milner, of Springfield; Fifth, Ethel P. Sherman, of Boonville; Sixth, Geo. Hughes; Seventh, E. B. Neely, of St. Joseph; Eighth, C. W. Pritchett, of Glasgow; Ninth, Charles Beckington, of St. Charles.

In the evening Mr. Harris gave an admirable address on the theory of American education, Mr. O. H. Fethers then entertained the audience with select readings.

After the passage of resolutions the association adjourned.

From our hasty resume, our readers will see how large an amount of instructive work was crowded into these two and a half days. We trust the work so bravely in progress will meet with no obstacle, and that from year to year we shall have the pleasure of chronicling meetings fuller and fuller of interest and profit.

ARKANSAS.—The State association met Dec. 28th in the City Hall at Little Rock. The opening address, by Professor Dale, was on "Bugs." In the afternoon session several important questions were discussed, such as, The relations of parents to schools; How shall incompetent and immoral teachers be debarred our schools? The Thursday (Dec. 29th,) exercises were as follows:

9:15—Should there be a State levy sufficient for a six months' school each year, throughout the State? Hon. E. E. Henderson. Discussion by Hon. H. A. Miller, W. H. H. Clayton, and others.

Others questions of great importance came up and the discussions were animated and interesting.

The afternoon session was occupied in discussing ways and means necessary for carrying into effect the law establishing a State University. A resolution petitioning the General Assembly to obtain the Arsenal grounds from the general government for a University site, was introduced by Dr. Smith. An amendment was offered providing for a committee of five to prepare a memorial and report the same to the Association; pending the consideration of the amendment, the meeting adjourned.

The association had two sittings on Friday, on the afternoon of which day it adjourned, after electing officers for its next assembly.

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THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1871.

THE CO-EDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

That which theory establishes and experience verifies may be safely followed. The co-education of the sexes, within the limits of certain ages and within certain sections of the United States, may be considered approved by the two-fold demonstration of theory and practice. Whether these limits of age and place may be transcended with advantage is a question for practical experiment to solve. Theory is in favor of the extension of co-education far beyond present practice, and, as a fact, the latter is creeping along conservatively up to the standard of the former. The admission of girls into colleges and scientific institutions, heretofore open exclusively to males, is the straw on the moving current, and tells what is coming. It is in accordance with the spirit of our institutions to treat women as self-determining beings, and as less in want of those external artificial barriers that were built up in such profusion in past times. We give to youth of both sexes more privileges or opportunities for self-control than are given in the old-world society. Each generation takes a step in advance in this respect.

Occasionally, as in San Francisco, there is a returning eddy which may be caused by the unbalanced condition of society, like that found on frontiers. Old cities like New York and Boston may move very slowly in this direction, because of the enormous expense required to change buildings and school-yards so as to adapt them to the wants of "mixed schools." In fact, the small size of school-yards in many cities renders this change next to impossible. Western cities will take the lead in this matter and outstrip the East. Within fifteen years the schools of St. Louis have been entirely remodelled on this plan, and the results have proved so admirable that I shall base a few remarks on the experience which they furnish. I wish to speak of the effects on the school system itself, and of the effects upon the individual pupils attending:

I. *Economy* has been secured through the circumstance that the co-education of the sexes makes it possible to have better classification and, at the same time, larger classes. Unless proper grading is interfered with, the separation of the sexes requires twice as many teachers to teach the same number of pupils. This remark applies chiefly to the higher grades where classes are small, unless in schools of immense size. This item of economy is very considerable, but is not to be considered impor-

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tant when compared with the other and greater advantages arising.

While it is conceded by the opponents of co-education that primary schools may be mixed to advantage, they with one accord oppose the system for schools of a higher grade. Now, what is singular in our experience, is the fact that our High School was the first experiment on this plan for classes above the primary. Economy and better classification were the controlling reasons that initiated this experiment, and from the High School the system has crept down through all the intermediate grades. What had been found practicable and satisfactory in the highest grades could not long be kept away from the lower ones.

II. *Discipline* has improved continually with the adoption of mixed schools. Our change in St. Louis has been so gradual that we have been able to weigh with the utmost exactness every point of comparison between the two systems. The mixing of the male and female departments of any school has been instantly followed by improvement in discipline. Not merely on the part of the boys, but on that of the girls as well. The rudeness and *abandon* which prevails among boys when separated, at once gives place to self-restraint in the presence of girls. The prurient sentimentality engendered by educating girls apart from boys—it is manifested by a frivolous and silly bearing when such girls are brought into the society of the opposite sex—this disappears almost entirely in mixed schools; in its place a quiet self-possession reigns. The consequence of this is a general prevalence of milder forms of discipline. Boys and girls originating—according to Nature's plan—in the same family as brothers and sisters, their culture should be together, so that the social instincts be saved from abnormal, diseased action. The natural dependence of each individual upon all the rest in society should not be perverted by isolating one sex from another during the most formative stages of growth.

III. *Instruction* is also greatly improved; where the sexes are separate, methods of instruction are unbalanced, and gravitate continually toward extremes that may be called masculine and feminine. The masculine extreme is the mechanical formalizing in its lowest shape, and the merely intellectual training on its higher side. The feminine extreme is the learning-by-rote system on the lower side, and the superfluity of sentiment in the higher activities. Each needs the other as a counter-check, and it is only through their union that educational methods attain completeness and do not foster one-sidedness in the pupil. We find here that mixed schools are noted for the prevalence of a certain healthy tone which separate schools lack. More rapid progress is the consequence, and we find girls making wonderful advance in mathematical studies, while boys seem to take hold of literature far better for the influence of the female portion of the class.

IV. *Individual Development* is, as already indicated, far more sound and healthy. It has been found that our schools kept exclusively for girls or boys require a much more strict surveillance on the part of the teachers. The girls confined by themselves develop the sexual tension much earlier, their imagination being the reigning faculty and not bridled by contact with reality. So it is with boys, on the other hand. Daily association in the class-room prevents this tension and supplies its place by indifference. Each sex testing its strength with the other on an intellectual plane in the presence of the teacher—each one, seeing the weakness

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and strength of the other, learns to esteem what is essential at its true value, and sudden likes and dislikes, capricious fancies and romantic ideals give way for sober judgments not easily deceived by mere externals. This is the basis of that quiet "self-possession" before alluded to, and it forms the most striking mark of difference between the girls educated in mixed schools and those educated in schools exclusively for girls.

That the sexual tension be developed as late as possible, and that all early love affairs be avoided is the desideratum, and experience has shown that association of the sexes on the plane of intellectual contest is the safest course to secure this desirable end.

I omit here the consideration of the question: "Whether the education demanded for females should not be different from that for males?" for the reason that in our public schools education is not carried so far as to involve this question to a great extent, and the agitation going on in reference to the admission of females to universities will soon settle it.

Our experience in St. Louis has been entirely in favor of the co-education of the sexes in all the respects mentioned and in many other minor ones.

WM. T. HARRIS.

SOME DEFECTS IN AMERICAN TEACHING.

II.

Another cause of our bad memories, and one with which it is more difficult to deal, is the universal greed for the new and the proportionate disregard for the past; the eagerness for personal activity, and consequent indifference to what lies outside of the sphere of our available energies. We value knowledge for what it promises to do for us, and make an effort to remember only those things that we think we shall have occasion to use—that is, so far as desire and will come in as elements, they are directed to the retention of that which is of apparent personal utility. What we want is not memories that *can* retain, but memories that *must* retain, those can not lose what has been intrusted to them, as this fault of memory is closely allied to what I shall discuss under my second head. I pass it by for the present.

Our American educators have been intensely occupied with education quantitatively, with providing it for all; this, perhaps, explains why they have given so little time to the qualitative results. It was a great thing to make a nation acknowledge that it owed an education as a birth-right to its citizens. To establish this principle, feeling as well as reason had to be won over. To do this it was necessary to make the schools popular, to study effect. This explains the present condition of American schools—the persistent aim to throw them into the popular stream of American feeling, where they are now floating in full current. The principle of the nation's obligation to provide an education for all its citizens is now established, and only needs a little time to put it everywhere into effective force.

It now behooves us to consider American education qualitatively, to see whether our school system is adapted to develop the best possible American civilization, and, instead of simply allowing it to drift in the national current, to place the best intelli-

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gence of our people at the helm to guide it.

My second point I have mentioned as the guessing tendency. This is universally regarded as a leading American trait. That is, the American mind is sympathetic rather than analytic, inductive rather than deductive. This peculiarity comes from our national institutions, whose overmastering spirit of liberty demands for the individual freedom from trammels both in thought and action.

From the fact that Americans are very successful guessers, it is evident that their conclusions are not reached independent of data, but that they follow the lead of a preponderance of probabilities.

There is much invitation, pressure even, to experiment, to guess out ways and results. The national life makes large demands and gives little time. Fifty men take the bearing of the probabilities and guess at the result. Some one of these is pretty sure to hit near enough for practical purposes, and any new principle thrown upon the world does its work, no matter whether it was *thought* out or *guessed* out. The public cares only to get hold of a good thing; it asks no questions about where it comes from.

Whatever may be said to excuse or justify our people in respect to these things, no one, I suppose, will deny that the commercial condition of the country would be greatly improved by a more rigid adherence to the legitimate laws of trade, by less adventure and more regular endeavor.

I suppose no one thinks that a favorable condition of things which necessitates frequent commercial crises, or that allows but one out of a very large number of merchants to pass through his career without bankruptcy.

Our American success is not due to the guessing, but is in spite of it. Our wonderful activity, this being-alive all over, this plotting in every finger and toe, brings us astonishing success; and yet it would be far better economy to have three or four men think any individual scheme through, and to have the rest of the fifty employed in some other equally certain lines of industry. If we could once get this sentiment into the public mind, community would cease to demand of us that we cultivate in our pupils boldness instead of prudence, smartness instead of wisdom.

There are great difficulties in the way of a change in this respect. The national current of American life is strongly set in its present direction. The natural gravities of our new republican life almost irresistibly favor it, and the channel is already well worn. Besides, there is a certain largeness of spirit shown in great ventures, that we, people of large rivers and broad prairies, seem to have an instinctive reverence for. When I say the difficulties in the way of a change are great, I do not imply that they are invincible; on the contrary, I believe the better intelligence of this nation needs only to be brought to consider the matter to inaugurate a change, and the change must unquestionably begin in the schools. From the hurry and pressure to attain results, the national mind is unavoidably inductive, pregnant with invention and discovery; and from a too narrow grasp of facts we are also, unavoidably, largely adventurers and guessers. The fault lies in our loose habits of thought—we habitually draw conclusions from insufficient data. In our schools much the larger part of the time is given to practice in thinking, and a disproportionately small part of the time is given to acquiring materials for thought—a broad range of facts and principles, to lie in reserve for the exigencies of life.

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We must consider our present school-work, both in regard to the habits of thought it induces and in regard to the amount of knowledge it gives.

In the subjects presented and the mode of treatment, there is, alike, a very strong tendency to develop a habit of rapid generalization. We give arithmetical puzzles and write down the answers. The children try all sorts of ingenious combinations till they bring out the given result. Now, this constitutes the most of our "rigid mathematical discipline," since comparatively few of the pupils pass on to the sphere of pure deductive mathematics. In science we deal with the conclusions, and only a very few of the leading principles from which they are drawn. Everywhere we stimulate the pupils to guess out the results for themselves. But we not only send them out from school with these loose habits of thought pretty persistently formed, but also with only a very small accumulation of thought-data, and with an almost total unconsciousness of the modifying influence produced by the less demonstrative elements of the premises—that is, in giving so much time to learning how to think we have but little left for getting together materials for thought. Speaking physically we say, in the natural course of development the work of a youth up to twenty is to get a large quantity of muscle, quite as much as to learn to manipulate his muscles skillfully. In fact, we give the preference to quantity, knowing that dexterity or skill has a very much longer period of natural growth. The natural law of mental development tends in the same direction; accretion, quantitative accumulation, is the leading aim in these first years. American education has been turned aside from this natural law, partly to meet the national exigencies, partly to satisfy a fevered eagerness on the part of our republican youth to assist in moulding the plastic life about them. In the first years of our nation the physical needs demanded that the youth should enter very early upon a useful career, and it was the plainest duty on the part of the schools to fit them as early as possible for a practical grapple with the commercial and productive problems of every-day life. We are rich now, and can afford to do better work, and not only this, but the most rigid principles of economy demand better work—demand that less time should be wasted in experiment.

Exactly what the responsibility of our educators in respect to this social condition is, I am not able to say; but of a few things we may be certain: 1st. that this condition of things, with its fearfully demoralizing influences, demands improvement; 2d. that the schools in America stand in a very much closer relation to the business life than the schools in any other country. We have no special apprenticeships here to fit young men for definite business callings. They pass at once from school into the position of valuable employees, or successful managers of large business interests. The plan of our schools is to give the pupils a general acquaintance with principles and processes, but above this, to wake them up most thoroughly—to make, as it were, every nerve a brain, or centre of thought and directive force for its separate muscle, and then trust to this facility of brain and litheness of muscle to do whatever comes to hand—and hence our men are in business-life pretty nearly what the schools have fitted them to be, and the faults of the mastership are closely connected with this school-apprenticeship.

I believe no one will doubt but that if our pupils should be carefully trained in thought processes, in accurate reason-

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ing from adequate data to legitimate conclusions, we should see very decided results in their subsequent business life. When I say carefully trained, I mean these accurate processes should be made their mental habits. We must get the grooves well worn, so that the thought will glide in the regular channels with less obstruction than in any other possible course. I am not ignorant of the many difficulties in the way of bringing this about: 1st. the very limited time that most of the pupils remain at school; 2d. the demand, on the part of the parents and the pupils themselves, for more demonstrative attainments, a certain smartness and brilliancy, to which the teacher must accede, or he finds his services are no longer demanded; and yet, I should not at all despair of being able to reach very positive results if a considerable number of leading teachers could be induced to consider the matter.

It is not difficult to make children see that their problems are more quickly solved by analysis than by guessing, and if they are properly trained from the first, it will never occur to them that they can get what they want better, by running about half blind-folded than with both eyes in use. Right processes are easier than wrong ones, and lazy pupils even may be pressed into them on the score of their indolence; but what is more important than all this, is to get the curiosity of pupils awakened so that they will be eager to know the *exact* condition of things. If this is done, accurate habits of thinking will come of themselves, and, it seems to me, this is much the most direct course to be taken with our American youth, and indeed may not be found so especially difficult, considering their natural curiosity, their greed for originality and personal discovery, their demand for opportunities, for original research, for personal observation and experience, and their unwillingness to accept as dogmas the results of other people's senses or reasoning. In the old-world methods, so thoroughly pervaded with the spirit of authority, their results are largely attained by the study of language, which inducts the mind by steady and constant pressure into definite processes. The pupils work themselves into the general drift of the thought and feeling of extended periods of time. They pass with long strides through the developing civilization of centuries, get the direction of its strong currents, and avoid the little bewildering eddyings of the every-day life. In this way they acquire a complete grasp of principles, and an acquaintance with the unity or wholeness of processes. The same scope of principles and processes is acquired by the study of history, but not the same definiteness of thought-habit;—now, neither of these studies can be so successfully pursued with us. Some one has said, "In the study of language we acquire the tools of thought." But it is wholly averse to our national spirit to learn the use of anything for which we cannot see a personal demand. Thought has no value in itself—it is only the first step in action—and we are curious to *know* because we are eager to *do*. Our American youth says, "Give me something to do and I will invent tools suited to the work." We may regret this feeling as much as we like, nevertheless it exists, and we cannot afford to disregard it. In respect to history, our people feel far more interest in developing the future than in knowing the past—they would rather *make* history than *learn* it—and yet I think more can be done in this line than in language. When I say to my pupils in history, "I do not know about a certain point, will you not look it up and tell me," I find a large number ready to make contributions to my stock

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of knowledge on the next day. There is not much indolence when there is opportunity for individual discovery, and an immediate chance to make use of the results of their work.

Mathematics, especially arithmetic, which is perhaps the favorite study of American youth, affords some scope in this direction. The problems are puzzles that whet the curiosity and test the ingenuity. But, at best, this is a study which gives very little thought-data and does not keep its hold upon the pupil after he leaves school, since (as a man) he demands from his work tangible and useful results. From a variety of considerations it has seemed to me that our national educational bent is in a marked degree science-ward. We cannot give our pupils a vital interest in the past. We cannot hold to the old-world methods of acquiring, from the study of history, extensive thought-data, and from the study of language a definite thought-movement or formula; and we surely cannot afford to send them into life without these equipments, unarmed for the contest. Science gives scope to the experimental, inductive tendency, and furnishes large occasions for personal examination and original discovery; and he who has mastered one sphere of vital activity knows pretty familiarly the high-ways and by-ways in every other. Nature's processes are wonderfully uniform, whether we look into the life of the plant or the animal, into the development of the globe or of human society; and the laws of passional phenomena may be very accurately learned from the study of the laws of material phenomena. One has but to read Prof. Gray to know that he has seen the whole world by looking into the plant, and the popular hold that Prof. Huxley has upon the British people is certain evidence that he speaks in the language of their own experience.

In regard to my third point, the undue personal influence of teachers, I am aware that its simple suggestion will excite some surprise, since in America the formation of intellectual tastes in the pupil depends so largely upon his relation to his teacher. Here lies a very important difference between the teaching in America and Europe. In aristocratic societies, superior mental ability is almost the only possible way in which a man can improve his social position, and hence there is the strongest possible inducement for an ambitious youth to make the best use of his time at school; and the teacher who mercilessly whips him through the severest drill is recognized as his best friend, though he may be the most unmitigated tyrant in all his personal relations with his pupils. Besides, since education has a more domestic phase, the parents keep a personal supervision over their children in this respect, and almost without exception encourage the teacher in the use of the severest measures. But in America, where wealth offers the surest and most tangible rewards, and yet wisdom, from the intrinsic excellence of our natures, secures an instinctive reverence, the boy finds himself midway between two opposing, but nearly equal attractions, where a very slight additional influence on the one side or the other will determine his future career. Usually the social tide carries him to the side of business, where he sees a large number of chances in favor of competence and distinction. On the side of wisdom he sees respectability certain, but from this position comparatively few of what are regarded the prizes in American life are drawn. These men seldom attain wealth or leading political and social position, and their fame is confined to an appreciating few, while the crown among American rewards is to get into the popular mouth. Under these circumstances,

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it is of incalculable importance that the teacher should be able to throw additional weight into the scale on the side of wisdom. With this aim he endeavors to win the affection of his pupils, so that, in addition to the ordinary inducements to study, there may be a desire to please a valued friend. Now, let us see how far this influence is valuable. We must always admit that, other things being equal, the teacher who secures the attainment of the most knowledge is the best teacher, but one element in this, which we are very likely to overlook, is the momentum of the pupil, or the necessity he has acquired for onward movement. It is a lamentable fact, that most of our pupils leave school with very little intellectual momentum, so that the commonest obstacles presented in every-day life stop their course. The successful preparation for life finds its measurement in the sum-total of life, and that is the best school-life that gives a man, in the sum of his whole life, the mastery or use of the most wisdom; and it may often be better that he should carry less away from school, but carry with him the necessity for getting more. So far as I have observed the effect of what is called the personal influence of teachers, it has usually seemed to me to last only while the pupil was in immediate contact with the teacher, and that when he left school he found himself with very little force study-ward. This method puts the motives to study upon a temporary basis, and when this basis is removed, the motives fall with it. The pupils are brilliant under this particular teacher; but let them go to another school, or leave school, the stimulant to work is lacking. Unquestionably the teacher should have the greatest possible influence over his pupils; but the occasion of this influence should not be his personal friendship, but his power to put truth and wisdom in its most attractive dress. The pupil must not see his teacher, but must look through his teacher's clearer eyes into the great heart of nature and spirit, till he has learned to see for himself. The fascination should be in the thing taught, and not in the teacher. The illuminated point must be the lesson, and the teacher should appear only in its reflected light. Also, the teacher must, by his precepts and the presentation of illustrious examples, so inform the pupil's mind with an admiration of virtuous deeds, as to create in him a degree of self-respect that will urge him on to high intellectual attainments. These are legitimate lines of influence on the part of the teacher, since they produce enduring results, and the influence that I reprehend is better than nothing, and only needs to be avoided because it precludes the establishment of more permanent motives to study. As this kind of personal influence is most easily attained, it is very largely made use of by teachers, besides, it is altogether in harmony with American life. It is quite necessary that the pupil should be convinced that the teacher is his friend, so that his advice may be received without the suspicion of personal motives, but I doubt if it is wise to try to secure work from pupils on the score of personal friendship. Nothing is more important to the American child than to learn to resist personal influence, and while he is learning to regulate his conduct by the wishes of his friend-teacher, he learns, equally well, to regulate his conduct by the wishes of his friend-companion. We wish to exclude this element of personal influence, to centre the directive force of life in the individual's own sense of right, and a different course is only sowing seeds, from whose growth society must eat a bitter fruit.

In regard to my fourth point, the

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general tendency to popular effect and public display, I am forced to say that I think our schools especially foster it. I am aware that I shall not meet with popular favor when I say that I believe much more harm than good comes to us from keeping our schools constantly open to the public. I do not say open to inspection, for these visits are made much in the nature of morning calls. The general health of the school is inquired after, but with no more attention to the answer than one pays when he inquires after the health of a friend in whom he sees no signs of illness.

Now, I am sure these visits are of great disadvantage to the school in taking the time and attention of both teacher and pupils, and, more or less, interrupting the general line of work. But, what is worse than this, they unavoidably throw the pupil out of the attitude of a learner into that of a public exhibitor; and I feel sure nothing can can be said in favor of these visits on the side of the school. School directors may find it of advantage in their particular work to know the actual condition of the schools, but unless they have themselves been teachers, they get very little from these visits. All schools should, of course, be open to teachers who wish to observe school methods, but they should enter and dispose of themselves as unobservedly as they would in a church, and etiquette should not demand any recognition from either pupils or teacher. Our public exhibitions do still more to develop this desire for display, and especial harm results from the fact that the shallower pupils are, on these occasion, in best demand, and the best work is put at discount. It is no answer to this to say that these are the pupils who will succeed in the world, for it is this very thing that we most of all need to guard against, the crowding of incompetent people into leading positions.

If a man who has nothing to say has the art of making his hearers believe he utters wisdom, he is the most dangerous of men, and his teachers should certainly not stand among his honorable references. The aim in the schools should be to make the best work stand in the highest honor and influence. This I do not believe can be done while we make our schools so large an element in the popular amusements. MARY E. BEEDY.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

V.

The simple incomplex form of the English verb is used to express habits and habitual acts, as, "He writes letters," may be a habit or merely an ability to write. "He writes letters every day" expresses a habit unequivocally. "He wrote letters of a morning when he was at Paris," denotes a habit, and is therefore an imperfect tense. "He wrote a letter yesterday," denotes a single complete act, not an incomplete habit. It is a perfect tense.

"He was writing a letter yesterday," "He is writing letters to-day," denote incomplete, progressive acts. They are imperfect tenses.

"The cargo consisted of silk,"—"*La cargaison consistait en soie,*"—is an imperfect tense.

The simple past tense of the indicative mood has two meanings: 1st. A single complete and finished act; 2d. An incomplete unfinished custom, and any attributive denoting continu-

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ance, as in the case of the cargo above, which continued to consist of silk.

The simple present expresses habits and customs taking place in the time of speaking. The complex present formed by the imperfect participle modified by the verb "to be," denotes an unfinished progressive act now taking place.

The perfect present is formed of the perfect participle modified by the tense verb "have," or by the tense verb "be," "am," "art," "is," "are." It expresses an act or an attribute that has been completed in a period of time, some part of which the speaker supposes to reach to the time of speaking, although the act itself may have been long finished; or the act in its consequences may reach down to the time of speaking, or the place where the act took place may still exist, as, "Empires have risen and perished where now the Atlantic rolls,"—that is, in the course of time and in the place of the Atlantic, both of which still exist.

Those whose mother-speech is English, using this tense, always understand a period coming down to the time of speaking, although no other allusions may be made to it than is made by the tense itself. If a period be mentioned, as, a day, a week, a month, a year, a century, a life-time, an age—such periods must include the time of speaking. They may be apprehended in the mind when not expressed. With native-born speakers such conceptions of time always include the time of speaking. Foreigners, when no period is specified, following the genius of their own language, may apprehend an act to have been done in some period entirely past, or, if they conceive of no period, may look upon the time of the verb as entirely past.

It is always improper to use this tense where the mind does not in conception embrace a period reaching to the time of speaking. The meaning of this tense never changes; neither the learned nor the unlearned mistake its proper use. Its impropriety would always be remarked in expressions denoting or alluding to periods of time entirely past.

In the passive voice there is an immediate and a remote present perfect. "The letter is just written," "The letter has been written three weeks." The three weeks including the time of speaking.

"She was loved," may imply that she is no longer so.

"He was writing a letter," implies an incomplete past act. "He has been writing a letter," implies cessation of an act taking place in a present period of time, leaving in doubt whether the writing be complete or incomplete, and so, "He had been writing a letter," would not determine whether the letter was finished or not. The speaker may not know, or may choose to leave it in doubt, or may consider it unimportant. The verb "had," and the participle "been," in combination, implying completion, and "writing," incompletion.

"Had been," denotes cessation of writing, and "writing," a progressive act, which may or may not have been finished.

"He is gone." "He has been gone three weeks," the three weeks being part of the present time included in the terms "has been gone."

"He went three weeks ago," indicates the point of time at which he started, which is out of the present time by three weeks; hence, "went" is used as a past tense, indicating a point of time not included in any present period.

THE PLUPERFECT.

The pluperfect expresses an act, complete or incomplete, occurring anterior to another past time: as, "He was gone three weeks before you came," "He

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had been gone three weeks when you came," three weeks having intervened between the time of his going and your coming.

When habitual or customary acts are to be put in the pluperfect, a paraphrase is necessary in English: as, "He had been accustomed to write his letters in the evening before his marriage."

"He wrote his letters of an evening before you came to live with him." The word "before" places the writing anterior to your coming as distinctly and exactly as if the paraphrastic pluperfect had been used; so, the paraphrase "He used to write his letters before you came to live with him."

Examples showing the use and force of the words "when," "after," "before," in relative tenses:

"He was writing a letter when you arrived." (Past imperfect.)

"He was writing a letter before you arrived." (Pluperfect incomplete.)

"He had been writing a letter when you arrived." (Pluperfect incomplete.)

"He had been writing a letter before you arrived." (Pluperfect incomplete.)

"He was writing a letter after you arrived." (Imperfect.)

"He was writing a letter after you had arrived." (Imperfect.)

With "when" the pluperfect is necessary to show the anteriority of one act to another. The terms "after," "before," show, with equal clearness, that one act was posterior and the other anterior to the arrival, as if the pluperfect had been used.

"On," "before," "after" your arrival, may be substituted for the terms used in the above examples, showing the relative grade of "you" and "arrived" to be the same as "your" and "arrival."

OF THE FORCE OF THE TERMS "WHEN," "AT THE TIME OF," "AS SOON AS," "BEFORE," "AFTER," "UNTIL," AND THE LIKE, IN MODIFYING THE TIME OF THE ENGLISH VERB:

OF THE FUTURE.

The future is used to express habits and customs, and also single acts, complete and incomplete: as, "He will write his letters of an evening when he has finished his library." The word "when" denotes future time, rendering the cumbrous and formal "shall" superfluous. It shows one act to be simultaneous with, or in immediate succession to another.

"I shall be writing letters to-morrow."

"I shall write a letter to my friend to-morrow," showing complete and incomplete acts.

The phrase "as soon as" denotes in a higher degree the instantaneous succession of one time to another; as, "He wrote a letter as soon as I came in," "Before" denotes anteriority.

"He wrote—had written—was writing—had been writing a letter before I came in."

"He wrote—was writing, after I came—had come in."

Clearness is the main object in distinguishing the time to be expressed by the English verb.

The future and pluperfect in English are expressed by modifying words, and where one expresses the time clearly, it is tautology to use two.

The usages of languages whose tenses express time with clear certainty do not in all cases apply to English. Their proper or improper use are peculiar to themselves, not to English.

OF SOME PECULIAR USAGES OF THE VERBS "TO BE" AND "TO GO."

"He is going" is used as an immediate future unless otherwise limited. It is also used as a tense-modifier of other verbs to indicate an immediate future time: as, "He is going to write—to run—to fight, &c. Colloquially, it is often preferred to "shall" and "will."

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"He has been at church," implies that he went and is returned.

"He (has) is gone to church," implies that he is still there.

"He went to church," implies nothing of his still being there, nor of his return.

"How long has he been gone?" inquires for the time elapsed from the time of going to the time of speaking.

"How long was he gone?" implies that he has returned and inquires for the space of time elapsed from the departure to the return, both of which are anterior to the time of speaking.

The present and perfect tenses of transitive verbs in the passive voice, expressing mental and material acts, are diverse from those expressing the moral affections.

"The house is built," "The book is read," denotes the completion and cessation of building and reading.

"Books are read," "Houses are built," denotes a custom.

"He is loved," denotes a continuance of that affection.

"Has been built," "Has been read," is diverse from "The house is built," "The book is read."

"The house is just built—has been built three months." It would be improper to say "The house is built three months."

"The book has been read several times," is proper.

"The book is read several times," would be improper.

But, "The book is read several times a year," would be proper.

The following forms show in how many ways the verbs—

"GO—WENT—GOING—GONE,"

and other transitive verbs, taking "have" and "be," "shall" and "will," for tense modifiers, may be modified in the indicative mood:

1. He goes.
2. He is going.
3. He went.
4. He was going.
5. He is gone.
6. He has gone.
7. He has been gone.
8. He was gone.
9. He had gone.
10. He had been gone.
11. He had been going.
12. He will go.
13. He will be going.
14. When he shall go.
15. When he shall be going.
16. He will have gone.
17. He will have been going.
18. When he shall have gone.
19. When he shall have been going.
20. He will be gone.
21. He will have been gone.
22. When he shall be gone.
23. When he shall have been gone.
24. He is to go.
25. He was to go.
26. He was to have gone.

OF A FULL ANALYSIS OF A PROPOSITION, AND OF A SENTENCE COMPOSED OF SEVERAL PROPOSITIONS.

The following questions for each word of a proposition, as well as for each proposition composing a sentence, if correctly answered, will give a thoroughly searching analysis:

1. What is it?
2. What are its functions?
3. What word, or group of words, does it modify?
4. By what word, or group of words, is it modified?
5. What is the combined result?
6. What relation does each proposition bear to other propositions in the same sentence?

The predicate of a proposition is sometimes composed of several verbs, each having a different function; some affecting the time of the principal verb; some, the mode; and some, the voice;

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some rendering it progressive. They may be termed time verbs, modal verbs, voice verbs, and progressives, the same verb sometimes having more than one of these functions.

The combination of two or more of these is called a compound verb; one of them being the fundamental verb of the predicate, may be so modified as to predicate its time, mode, voice and incompletion. Such combinations are called compound tenses and verbs. It would be more accurate to call them complex modes and tenses, being composed of unequal parts.

Propositions, like words, are paramount, equal, or subordinate to each other. These relations to each other are shown by separate words formed for that purpose, or by some form contained in the predicate of the proposition. The external form of a verb shows the internal functions adapting it to a subordinate or paramount relation to another proposition in a sentence. The participles are forms of language adapted to express sub-propositions. Languages having a subjunctive mode express sub-propositions by them as well as by participles.

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

HOW STRAW PAPER IS MADE.

While spending a week on Kenka lake last summer, finding that fishing was a name without a substance, and, as far as its connection with that variety of animated nature was concerned, might just as well have been designated by any other title, I concluded to leave the poor fish undisturbed; although, to be strictly honest, I cannot prove that my presence or efforts *did* disturb them. Be that as it may, I decided not to fight it out on that line any longer. So, leaving the lake gleaming and sparkling in its rich setting of hills and vineyards, we set out for a visit to the Cascade Paper Mills. A ride of three or four miles along the outlet through a rich farming country, by stacks and barns full of harvested grain and wide fields of golden stubble, brought us to the mill—a genuine old country grist mill that not long since gave up its legitimate business of grinding flour and took to straw. This is not the first instance of the kind recorded in history, for we read that when the Moors overran Spain at the beginning of the sixteenth century, they brought with them the idea of making paper from cotton rags, and finding a large number of water-mills already in operation in that country, they turned them into paper mills. Thus was paper made cheap and abundant enough to make practical and possible the idea of printing, which art was invented soon after.

When we think how wonderfully books subserved the interests of liberty in the Great Reformation, we can but trace in these anterior discoveries something of a Providential forethought and direction. But to return from the Middle Ages to Penn Yan! The mill is situated in a romantic glen, through which winds a noisy brook and the canal, while the side hills are covered with woods and broken gullies. As we come near we catch the familiar odor of chlorine, and are deafened by the roar of the machinery. Passing sheds of carboys of vitriol and hogsheads of chloride of lime, we enter the building. Here we are introduced to Mr. Joy, the agent of the company. He is a brother of Prof. Joy, who fills the chair of chemistry in Columbia College, and is himself a good chemist and capital business

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man. Giving ourselves up to his guidance, he tells us we must begin at the top. So upward we climb, up short stairs and long stairs, winding among huge tanks of alkali and chlorine water, green and fragrant, by heaps of paper pudding, troughs of paper milk, while our ears are dinned by the clanking cog-wheels and the rumbling old wooden shafts and splashing of water everywhere. At last we emerge into the garret, which we find stowed away with straw on either side like a big barn bay. In the centre two men are chopping the straw just as thrifty farmers do the fodder for their cattle. Going down from this familiar scene, we come to a huge steam-boiler, holding four tons, in which men are packing away the cut straw. There is but one small trap-door for entrance, and the hot, stifling, dusty atmosphere within must be almost unendurable. In this process the straw is cooked with an alkaline solution of potash and lime, which softens the fibre and dissolves out the earthy matter and silica, which give stiffness to the straw. Leaving this, I found a solitary man mechanically pushing, with an instrument resembling a long rake without any teeth, backward and forward over wire-slats, a mixture that looked for all the world like an immense quantity of soft, half-chewed wheat gum mixed with short straws. (I presume you all remember manufacturing the domestic article in your early days.) Anxious to know what this man could be about, I called out to him above the roar, in a voice loud enough to wake the seven sleepers: "What is this?" Nothing indicated that he heard me at all. I repeated the call seven times louder still. He looked up at me dreamily and inquiringly, but kept on as before, backward and forward, backward and forward, as monotonously as if by long-continued labor the toothless old rake and its owner had become fitted into the cog-wheels and went by water-power with the huge cranks that whirled just over our heads. An endless supply of the chewed gum and water dripped down from a big tank just before him, and I saw nothing which would give him pause of his great labor. So, at length, in sheer despair, determined to know the mystery of his work, I screamed seventy times louder than before: "WHAT ARE YOU DOING HERE?" Slowly the rake stopped. The man shut down a long lever, closed the opening in the tank, and, turning to me, drawled out, "*What did you say?*" I politely inquired of him the *modus operandi* of transforming chewing gum into paper. He very pleasantly and intelligently explained to me that he took the cooked straw and washed it over the sieve I saw there. What dissolved and passed through with the water was fit for paper stuff; the rest, containing the stiff straw and the quack grass, which had resisted the heat and alkali of the first steaming, was re-cooked. Passing down stairs, I saw the accepted paper stuff. It was a fair quality of "chewing gum" with the straw washed out.

Following this is the bleaching process. This is performed in a manner peculiar to this mill, and is of great practical importance. The brown paper pulp, fresh from the cooking and washing just described, is placed in a tank, and properly diluted with water. A current of common air, mixed with about five per cent. of chlorine gas, is now forced through the liquid mass. Almost instantly it bleaches out white as snow. What is the *rationale* of this chemical change is not fully understood. The chlorine entirely disappears in the operation. It is probable the oxygen of the air is turned into ozone—that mysterious allotropic form of oxygen, in which its corrosive power is wonderfully quickened and intensified. In all

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other mills the straw pulp alone cannot be worked into paper, but other pulp must be added. It is *here* worked up immediately and needs no washing. In mills where bleaching is performed by a solution of chloride of lime, from twelve to twenty hours are required for the liquid to permeate the mass, and at the conclusion the excess of chloride must be washed out with water. The advantages of the Cascade Mills' process, as explained to us by Mr. Joy, are apparent.

From the bleach-tub the white pulp is drained, and then, as fast as required, is diluted to the consistency of some city milk of which I have heard. It is then conducted by a pipe into the paper-room. Here it empties out upon an endless belt of wire gauge some forty feet in length and about twice the width of a newspaper sheet. As the milky liquid is slowly carried along by this belt the water drips through, and the wide fluid sheet becomes more and more paperish in appearance. Leaving the belt, it passes between two rollers covered with woolen cloth. Here the water is mostly squeezed out.

Next, the sheet enters a complicated system of hollow rollers filled with steam. Over and under, backward and forward it winds, until perfectly dried and hard it emerges at the other end between knives which divide it lengthwise, trim it, and cutting it into the proper size, drop the uniform sheets upon a table. Here sit two girls who watch them as they fall and remove any imperfect ones. They are then counted and tied up into reams ready for transportation.

It seems curious enough to stand at one end of the machine and trace the sheet backward through constantly diminishing degrees of consistency, from fair hard paper, upon which I dabbled with my pencil, to thin, white milk in which I dabbled with my finger. The amount of water which is mixed with the pulp before it runs upon the belt determines the thickness of the sheet: the thinner the liquid, the thinner the paper.

The paper thus made from straw is fit only for printing. All kinds of writing paper are made as yet from rags; the finer and choicer kinds from *linen* rags imported from Italy. The poor lazzaroni of that ill-fated country are thus made, through the economic processes of industry, to subserve the highest wants of mankind. Paper can be manufactured from any substance which contains woody fibre. Thus, we hear not only of straw being used for this purpose, but of the inner bark of trees, grape-vines, corn stalks, waste hops, spent tanbark, and even wood itself. There is a book in the Smithsonian Institute, at Washington, printed on seventy-two different kinds of paper. The difficulties are connected only with the cost of manufacturing and not with the scarcity of materials. Improved methods, such as those recently adopted in the mills just described, afford plentiful means for meeting the wants of the age upon which we are entering, and which may be emphatically styled the *paper age!*

It is true we have not applied paper to as many uses as have the Japanese, with their paper handkerchiefs and paper water-proof cloaks, and yet, with our paper collars, paper cuffs, paper soles, paper skirts, paper hats, paper twine, newspapers, wall-paper, paper in books, paper in maps, engravings and pictures, paper boxes, rocket-cases and water-pipes, papier-mache, paper dollheads, paper cartridges, paper sheathing for vessels, paper book-covers, paper filters, paper blotters, paper for printing, writing and wrapping, we need an immense quantity. The *New York Tribune* alone, it is said, requires fifteen tons per

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day. In the United States, in 1854, there were 750 paper mills, and the number is now, doubtless, doubled or trebled. This question of a supply of printing material, thus happily met in the present manufacture of good straw paper, was for many years a most puzzling one. In 1770 paper rags were secured with the greatest difficulty. Public advertisements announced when the bell-carts would go around to collect, and urgent appeals were made to the patriotism of the ladies, that they would save all the rags possible. Yet, in spite of all these efforts, the supply was extremely meagre; so that, in 1804, the American company of booksellers offered large premiums to any one making the largest quantity of paper from other materials than cotton or linen rags. Thanks to basswood and straw, we are now dependent on rags simply for writing-paper.

The Foudrinier paper machine, now universally used in our mills, is one of the wonders of modern invention. At one end runs in the liquid paste, while at the other the finished paper coils up on a big roller at the rate of a-half mile per hour, or drops on a table in sheets of any desired size. So rapid is the process, that a man may trundle over a wheelbarrow load of straw in the morning and at evening read from it the latest news; or leaving his worn-out shirt after breakfast as he goes to his work, returning at night receive it again as foolscap or commercial note.

How beautifully Industry imitates the economy of Nature. On the slime and filth of the swamp lie the petals of the lily, pure as the spotless robes of a saint. The waste air from our lungs is converted into songs of joy, prayers of faith, and words of social cheer. We toss aside the worthless garments we have worn, but running waters shall wash them, and rending wheels shall grind them, and they will come forth white as the freshly-fallen snow, fit to preserve for coming ages—these words and songs and prayers. How wonderful is the alchemy which thus transmutes the gross and coarse into the pure and white, upon which man may stamp the highest thoughts of his mind. How curiously, too, this paper-making illustrates a higher truth. By what divine chemistry of the soul are the common events of our daily life converted into the fair fabric of character on which man may trace his history for time and his destiny for eternity.

J. DORMAN STEELE.

READING.

I have been asked to give a few hints upon reading, and some of the methods of teaching it.

Much has been said and written upon this subject, and yet it is evident that, to a great extent, this branch of study is sadly neglected in our schools. Geography, grammar and arithmetic are considered of sufficient importance to occupy a portion of each day's work, while reading occurs once, twice, or, at the most, but three times a week.

In the primary grades a scholar reads every day—as he grows older, this most important of all branches occupies a second, third, and even a fourth place in his work. Not long since, I said to a boy, "Why are you so deficient in reading?" His reply was significant: "I never could read much, and last year I was trying for the High School and had no time to read."

Many persons read quite well who cannot, or do not teach reading success-

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fully. It cannot be learned wholly by imitation. It requires long and continued study as well as constant practice to read well, and to teach others to read.

I am of the opinion that much of the poor reading in our schools would rapidly disappear if teachers would adopt a plan similar to the following:

1. Make a selection adapted to the comprehension of the class.

2. Study the piece carefully and decide upon a definite plan for chaining the attention of the class.

3. Give the lesson to the class in time to have it well studied, and insist upon its being read *aloud* before they come to the recitation.

4. Make the *first* recitation a familiar one, by calling upon different pupils to read, and others to criticise. For example, if the selection is a description, the teacher leads the class over the same road the author has traveled, points out the objects of interest by the way, and calls upon those who have seen similar places or objects to describe them. The class trace the resemblance, an interest is awakened, and even the dullest scholar takes an imaginary journey

I have often spent half an hour profitably, with a class of forty, upon the following:

"The boy stood on the burning deck
Whence all but him had fled;
The flames that lit the battle-wreck
Shone round him o'er the dead.

Yet beautiful and bright he stood,
As born to rule the storm;—
A creature of heroic blood—
A proud though child-like form."

The first reading was very faulty; it was simply a description of some far-off scene, with no present meaning. A few moments spent in familiar questioning served to place before the mind's-eye of each, the broad ocean—no land in sight—a helpless ship on fire, and on the deck the slight form of a boy, strong to do and suffer for the right. The picture once formed became a reality, and the reading easy and expressive, because the heart was filled with an earnest sympathy.

Having thus struck the key-note in the *first* recitation, the class is prepared to study the same for a *second*. A lesson should be kept before the class until the whole thing becomes like a picture, once studied, never forgotten.

When teachers are convinced of this fact, that a reading lesson, if properly conducted, occupies a wider range of thought, and requires more labor in preparation than any other branch of study, and will *act* upon that conviction, then will they make better readers in their schools, and will send forth into the world more thoughtful men and women.

MIRIAM S. SHERMAN.

WHO loves a thing he may not do,
And lives vain hours he still must rue,
Ah, pity him in conflict snared;

But, if he learn the strife to love,
And prune his wings for flight above,
God has beheld his woe and spared.

—L. J. B.

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BIMINI.

[*Concluded.*]

II.

Stays the Knight upon the mainland,
Loyal to old seaman-fashions,
And, as once upon his vessel,
Sleeps at night upon a hammock.

Also, motion caught of wave-plunge,
Which so oft had brought him slumber,
Seeks the Knight not to dispense with,
And he has the hammock rocked.

Task which is performed by Kaka,
Aged squaw of Indian race,
Her who from the Knight mosquitos
Drives away with peacock feathers.

While she the aërial cradle
With the gray-beard child is rocking,
Murmurs she a legendary,
Ancient catch of her own country.

Lies there magic in the sing-song,
Or the woman's intonation,
Which is flute-like as the twitter
Of a greenfinch? And she sings:

"Little birdie Kolibri,
Lead us on to Bimini,
Fly before us, and we follow
In our well-bepennoned pirogues.

"Little fishling Brididi,
Lead us on to Bimini,
Swim before us, and we follow,
Oaring with flower-girded oar-poles.

"On the island Bimini,
Blooms eternal vernal gladness,
And the golden laverocks carol
In the blue their tirili.

"Tall-stemmed blossoms grow dense-matted,
Like savannahs, o'er the island;
All-impassioned are their odors,
And their colors wanton-flaming.

"Wide-branched palm-trees boldly lift them
From the soil, and with their leaf-fans,
Breathe unto the flowers beneath them
Shadow-kisses, grateful coolness.

"On the island Bimini,
Springs the loveliest of fountains;
Flows from precious wondrous source,
Water of rejuvenescence.

"If you some half-withered flowret
Moisten over with a few drops
Of this water, it reviveth,
Also shines in freshest splendor.

"If you some up-parchèd twig
Moisten over with a few drops
Of this water, once more shoots it
Forth new leaf-buds, sweetly greening.

"If the gray-beard drink that water,
Youth returns again; his winters
Throws he from him as the insect
Shuffles off its base enwreathement.

"Many a gray-beard, who had quaffed him
Back again to fair-haired youngster,
Was ashamed to turn his footsteps,
Callow birdling, toward his country.

"Many a little mother, likewise,
Who to youth again had sipped her,
Would not seek her former homestead,
As a young thing of a maiden.

"And the good folk make their home there,
Evermore in Bimini;
Bliss and Spring hold them enchainèd
In the land of youth unfading.

"To the land of youth unfading,
To the island Bimini,
Reach my longing and desiring;
Fare ye well, ye friends beloved!

"O you old cat Mimili,
And old house-cock Kikriki,
Fare ye well, oh, never we
Shall turn back from Bimini."

So the woman sang. Her master
Hearks her singing, slumber-drunken;
Sometimes only, as in dreaming,
Lisps he childish, "Bimini."

III.

Clearly overbeams the sunshine,
Gulf and strand of island Cuba;
In the deep-blue heavens are hanging
Only violins this morrow.

Rose-red from the bold Spring's kisses,
In her bodice of green emeralds,
Gay adornèd as a bride,
Blows and glows the lovely island,

On the sea-shore, many-colored,
Swarms a crowd of mingled station,
Mingled ages; but their hearts beat
As with pulse of one emotion.

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For the same hope, peace-inspiring,
Has on all alike made seizure,—
All ensouled; you may know it
In the thrill of silent joyance

Of yon ancient nun, poor creature,
Who on crutches drags her hither,
And her rosary o'er-rolling,
Mutters low her paternosters,

You may recognize the self-same
Hope inspiring in the smiling
Of the lady, who on gilded
Palanquin is hither borne.

She, between her lips a flower,
Playful flirts with the hidalgo,
Who, upcurling his mustachios,
Gladly onward fares beside her.

As upon the face of rigid
Soldier-squadrons, shows the joyance
In the sacerdotal visage,
Which now humanly unwrinkles.

How o'erjoyed the meagre black frock
Rubs and rubs his hands! how gaily!
How the Capuchin capacious
Gaily strokes his double chin.

Even the bishop who looks mostly
Cross and surly, when he mass must
Celebrate, because his breakfast
Needs must suffer then postponement—

Even the bishop, smirks o'erjoyed;
Overjoyed gleam the carbuncles
On his nose, and, garbed for feast-day,
Forward waddles he good-humored,

Under purple baldachin
Incense-smoked by choir of boys,
And by clericals attended
Who with gold brocade are covered,

And gold-yellow sun-umbrellas
Hold above their craniums duly,
Even to colossal, waddling
Mushrooms comparable clearly.

To the table of the high God
Goes the train, even to the altar
Which beneath the open heavens
Here upon the shore is builded,

And adorned is with chaplets,
Holy pictures, palm-leaves, ribbons,
Silver dishes, golden spangles,
And wax-candles, sparkling gaily:

And his eminence the bishop
Celebrates high mass on sea shore,
And with prayer and consecration
Labors to pronounce his blessing

Over yonder small flotilla,
Which, within the roadstead rocking,
Lies upon the point of sailing
For the island Bimini.

Yes, the vessels there, those are they
Which Don Juan Ponce de Leon
Well has furnished and well manned,
That he may seek out the isle where

Water of rejuvenescence
Sweetly bubbles. From the mainland
Many thousand thoughts of blessing
Follow him, mankind's redeemer,

Him, the high world-benefactor—
Soothly hopes each one the Knight will,
On his journey back to Cuba,
Bring him, too, a keg of boyhood.

Some already drink in spirit
That refreshment, and are rocking
With their gladness like the vessels
There at anchor in the roadstead.

Of five vessels is composèd
The flotilla; one good-sizèd
Caravella, two feluccas,
And two lesser brigantines.

Admiral's flag-ship is the good-sized
Caravella, and the banner
Shows the blazon of Castilia,
Arragonia and of Leon.

Like unto an leafy arbor,
She is well adorned with birch-boughs,
Flower-garlands and festoonings,
And with flapping, gay-hued pennons.

She is named Ladye Speranza,
And upon her stern, as figure,
Stands the lady's counterfeit,
Sculptured life-size out of oak-wood,

Painted with quite eminently
Smooth-o'er-varnished hues and colors,
Which contemn both wind and weather,—
Soothly a majestic figure.

Of a brick-red is her visage,
Brick-red are her neck and bosom,
Which above green bodice swell;
Also is her skirt's hue green.

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Green, moreover, is her garland;
Pitch-black is her hair, her eyebrows,
And her eyes are likewise pitch-black;
In her hand she holds the anchor.

The flotilla's crew, all counted,
Number, haply, near a hundred
And four-score; among them number
Only six priests and six women.

Eighty men and but one lady
Are on board the Caravella,
Which commands Ponce de Leon
Personally. Kaka is

That same lady; yes, the aged
Kaka now is grown a lady,
Is Senora Juanita,
Since the master has upraised her

To Grand Mistress of Fan-Feathers,
And High Hammock-Rocker Lady,
And the future Youth's Cup-bearer
On the island Bimini.

As a mark of office, holds she
In her hand a cup of gold,
Wears, besides, a high-looped tunic,
Even like unto a Hebe.

Costliest of Brussels laces,
Strings of pearls, in countless dozens,
Scornfully engird the faded,
Brown-hued charms of the senora.

Rococo-anthrophagic,
Carribean-Pompadour,
Rises up the cushioned head-dress,
Which is garnisht with innumerous

Little birds, which, small as insects,
Through the splendor of their feathers'
Burnished colors, look like blossoms
That of precious stones are fashioned.

This extravagant coiffure,
Made of birds, suits wonderfully
Kaka's quaint and curious forehead,
Forehead that is like a parrot's.

This extravaganza's side-piece
Furnishes Ponce de Leon,
Who, with confidence believing
In the near rejuvenescence,

Has, beforehand, sought to clothe him
In the costume of glad manhood,
And his person, gay adorned,
In the fopling garb of fashion.

Beaked shoes, with bells of silver,
Like young bird's beak, and fine slashed
Breeches, having the right leg
Rosy-colored, while green-hued,

Striped green the left leg is;
Satin jacket, with puff trimming;
Short-cut mantle, archly shouldered;
Bonnet with three ostrich feathers.

In this wise, well garbed, and holding
In his hands a lute, there dances
Up and down the Admiral
And pronounces the ship's orders.

He commands that they the anchor
Shall uplift the very moment
When the signals from the sea-shore
Of the mass's end give notice.

He commands that, on the sailing,
Cannons all of all the vessels
With three dozen shots of honor
Shall salute the island Cuba.

He commands and laughs and gyrates
On his ship's deck like a spun top—
Even to drunkenness excites him,
Sweetest hope's all-maddening dream-draught.

And he snatches at the poor chords
Of his lute, till they make moaning,
And with old and broken voicing
Sadly bleats those words of sing-song:

"Little birdie Kolibri,
Little fishling Brididi,
Fly and swim before and show us
Pathway unto Bimini."

IV.

Juan Ponce de Leon truly
Was no coward and no dotard,
When he undertook the voyage
To the island Bimini.

Of the island's true existence
Never raised he any question,
His old Kaka's sing-song furnished
Him with pledge and evidence.

More than all earth's other children
Wonder-credulous is the sea-man;
Still before his eyes he has
Flaming large the heaven's wonders,

While about him sounds continuous
The mysterious ocean-river,
From whose bosom rose in times past
Donna Venus Aphrodite.

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In the trochees hereto following,
We shall truly make recital
How the Knight did much adventure,
Trouble and distress withstand.

Ah, instead of getting better
From old sickness, was the poor man
Still pursued of many novel
Maladies and of much suffering.

While he for his youth was searching,
Daily grew he old and older,
Till emaciate and wrinkled
At the last he reached the land;

Reached that silent land where, awsome
Underneath the shadowy cypress,
Flows a rivulet, whose water
Also is of wondrous healing.

Lethe hight the goodly water;
Drink therefrom and thou forgettest
All thy sorrows, yea, forgettest
What thou e'er before hast suffered.

Goodly water! Goodly land!
Whoso reaches it shall leave it
Nevermore, because this land
Is the very Bimini.

—LEWIS J. BLOCK.

[*From the German of Heinrich Heine.*]

Editors' Department.

THE FUNCTION OF CRITICISM.

We are not at all inclined to throw stones at our contemporaries, but we never peruse a new month's periodicals without feeling a certain degree of misgiving when we come to the book-reviews. If there be one function which, above all others, belongs to an educational periodical, it is that of making the public acquainted with the comparative merits of all recent educational works upon any given subject. In order to do this, the true critic will carefully read every work he reviews, he will, as he goes along, note defects and things worthy of recommendation, and, as far as his space will permit, faithfully record these in his notice, at the end of which he may draw what general conclusion he finds justified by the facts previously stated. This is the only fair way of reviewing. It leaves every reader to judge for himself of the merits of a book, and to authors and publishers no room for complaint. Such reviewing has also another function: it often calls attention to errors that are current, and, in a pointed way, imparts much information. Such, however, is very far from being the way in which book-reviews for educational periodicals are usually written. They are, as a rule, prepared by persons who have, at best, only glanced at the works in question; they are composed of vague expressions of undiscriminating praise. To read ordinary book-notices, one would suppose that every new book were a paragon of indefinite excellences. There are very few educational periodicals in the country whose reviews are of any value whatsoever, and only two or three that are independent enough ever to utter a word of dispraise. We occasionally see one whose helpless efforts to appear independent, and learned enough to be capable of fault-finding, are singularly comical. Lately we observed one that, after praising a series of books in the usual vague manner, suddenly put on its judicial black hood, and condemned the very thing that gave the main value to the series! We repeat we have no desire to throw stones at our contemporaries, but we would, in a friendly manner, call their attention to the abuses

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which they countenance and abet in the matter of book reviewing; we would beg of them to consider the importance of the reviewer's functions, and their influence upon education generally.

THE BEGINNING.

The following amendments, among others, to the general school law of Missouri, were passed by the Lower House of the General Assembly on the 18th ult.:

"Sec. 6. The local directors shall have power to erect, *whenever a majority of the qualified voters deem necessary*, a suitable school-house in their sub-district, returning an estimate for this purpose to the township clerk, which shall be assessed upon and collected from the taxable property in said sub-district in the same manner as other estimates for school purposes, *but no estimates for building purposes shall exceed one per cent.* of said taxable property, unless a greater per cent. shall be ordered by *two-thirds* of the qualified voters of such sub-district present and voting, when assembled in public meeting, such meeting to be held in accordance with the provisions of this act.

"Sec. 14. It shall be the duty of the directors in each sub-district, on or before the third Saturday in April of each year, to forward to the township clerk an estimate of the amount of funds necessary to sustain the schools in their respective districts for a period of not less than four nor more than six months, *and* to discharge any indebtedness caused by insufficiency of previous estimates, *such estimates not to exceed one-half of one per cent.* on the taxable property of the district."

A bill has also been passed by the same body, making similar amendments to the law for cities, towns, and villages.

What will result if these proposed amendments become law? Briefly, very inferior school-houses, if any at all, will be constructed; schools will be taught from one to four months only; two thousand school districts, at the least, will be deprived of all participation in the State school fund; competent teachers will be forced to retire from the profession, and inferior ones will take their places; and, finally, our educational progress will suffer in two years what it cannot recover from in a generation!

We have neither time nor space in this number to discuss these points, but will do so hereafter. Indeed, we do not know that more than their statement is necessary, or that argument now would have weight with the Legislature; but this we do know, that however much we may regret the necessity for plain talk, we shall, to the best of our ability, expose to the people these attempts to cripple our public school system.

TEXT-BOOKS.

While the following document speaks for itself, we believe it to be one of the most sensible papers ever issued by a state superintendent of public schools. It has been extensively circulated by the newspapers, which are, essentially, to a great degree, ephemeral; but we deem it of such unusual importance and interest to the people of all our States, that we give it place in The Review for permanent use and reference:—

To whom it may concern:

The general interest manifested on the subject of text-books seems to render it necessary for me, in the very outset of my administration, to state my position in the premises.

Efforts have been made from time to time to establish general uniformity in the use of the same text-books throughout a whole State. I do not believe that such an arrangement is practicable even if it were desirable, nor that it is desirable even if it were practicable.

County Superintendents and other persons are inquiring of me "Which are the best books?"

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"What series do you recommend?" I do not recommend any particular series. There are in common use in the district schools throughout the country many different kinds of text-books treating on the same subject. There is undoubtedly a difference in the degree of merit between these sets of books; one series on account of the fullness or brevity with which the subjects are treated, or the arrangement of subjects, or some other peculiarity, may be better for a certain school than another; while in a school differently composed other books may be preferable. But when we come to consider the exact position which the text-book occupies in the work of education, we shall see that these differences are of slight importance—that it is a matter of comparative insignificance whether one set of text-books or another be used in the school-room. Consider for a moment what conditions and agencies are requisite for a good school or good system of schools: 1st. A good school-house, suitably located, properly constructed, well lighted and ventilated; 2d. Comfortable furniture; 3d. Blackboards and wall-maps; 4th. A good teacher; 5th. The best possible classification; 6th. Uniformity of text-books. I might go on and particularize other conditions or ingredients of a good school, but the question as to whether I should adopt A's or B's series of books would be an item low down in the list. I would not be misunderstood on this point; the importance of the text-book is unquestioned; it is invaluable, indispensable to the school; but I do not recognise that one series possesses any great advantage over another in the common school work. I believe every teacher and every educator will fully coincide with this view of the subject. The point is so plain that it needs only to be stated to be seen.

I wish to call particular attention to the fact that ample provision is made in the school law for securing the perfect uniformity of text-books in every local district or township in the State, and if there is any failure of compliance with this provision, the fault rests with the township board of education. While I am utterly opposed to any attempt on the part of state authorities to force the use of any particular text-books upon the people, I regard it as absolutely essential to the best interests of the schools that one series, and one alone, should be used in all the schools under any given board of education. Every township board throughout the whole State is empowered to determine what text-books shall be used in the schools under its charge, and the patrons of the schools should see that the board prescribe but one set and make no frequent changes. If different series are now used in the same township, adopt the series which seems to be most generally used, that which seems to have most favor with the people, and get the other books exchanged as soon as possible. When you have secured perfect uniformity, retain it. Every change made oftener than once in five years will be an evil and an expense to your people.

IRA DIVOLL, State Sup't.

BAD PRINT.

The *Atlantic* is publishing a series of articles on "*Our eyes, and how to take care of them,*" by Henry W. Williams, M.D. Three numbers have appeared—all of them bearing evidence of close study and thorough mastery of the topics treated. The following timely words, contained in the March number, are entitled to a place in our pages:

"No protest can be too earnest against the manner in which books, especially school-books, are printed. Surely, if an author's work has any value, it deserves better than to be sent forth in so poor a garb. What is worth printing at all, at least as regards books intended to be constantly used or extensively read, is worth being well printed, with clear type, upon a fair page. Everything should be done, so far as the arts may serve the interests of learning and science, to make study a pleasure instead of rendering it an irksome and injurious task.

"If and while eyes are strong, they may offer only feeble remonstrance against the harm they suffer in being forced to decipher that which bad type, ink, and paper have combined to make illegible; but the day of reckoning comes at last, and many eyes must cease their labors, and many minds, full of useful projects, must abandon their plans, because the eyes, those long-enduring instruments of research, have given way to the continued strain to which they have been needlessly subjected.

MR. O. G. WILSON, an associate of the Hon. E. E. White in the publication of the *Ohio Educational Monthly* and the *National Teacher*, ha made an extensive tour of observation through Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, and Missouri, the results of which appear in his reports to the *Monthly* and *Teacher*. Mr. Wilson employed several days in thoroughly examining the public schoool system of our city, and its workings. His impressions will probably be given in his publications.

The periodicals with which he is connected are deservedly popular, and are among the very best of the kind in this country.

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Reviews and Notices.

THE INDEPENDENT READERS. IN FIVE NUMBERS. By J. MADISON WATSON, Author of The National Readers and Spellers, The Hand-Book of Gymnastics, The Manual of Calisthenics, Phonetic Tablets, etc. *A. S. Barnes & Co.*, New York and Chicago.

In the *First Reader* the author has sought to combine the most valuable features of the word-system, phonetics, and object lessons, and, at the same time, to treat of familiar and pleasing things. Beginning with the word *ax*, with a corresponding picture, the child is taught the relation of the word to the picture, and to recognize it thereafter as conveying the same meaning. The picture of a man seated upon a log with an ax in his hand is next introduced, with the proper words. This completes the first lesson. The letter *s*, as it occurs in *has*, is marked ṡ, to represent its distinct sound. Three lessons and a review are devoted to short *a*, in which no word occurs having a different sound of that letter, the author stating in a note referring to its use as a word, "that the word *a*, when not *emphatic*, should be pronounced nearly like *a* as heard in *grass*," giving it, according to his arrangement, the sixth sound of that letter. In the fifth lesson short *e* is introduced, in the seventh short *i*, in the tenth short *o*, and in the thirteenth short *u*; each lesson including the words used in former ones, making it a continuous review. This occupies fifteen pages, after which the alphabet, with the various marked letters, is introduced in regular order, with a note that the latter "should be designated, at first, by their elementary sounds, rather than by their usual alphabetic names." The next twenty-five pages, containing forty-one lessons, are devoted to the long and third vowel sounds, concluding Part First, entitled "The Word System." Part Second, or, "Choice Readings," is a general review of Part First, and is made up of pleasing stories about boys, girls, dogs, rats, mice, horses, bees, birds, and trees.

The *Second Reader*, like its predecessor, is divided into two parts. The first entitled "Good Elocution," is devoted to such exercises as shall best secure *distinct articulation* and *correct pronunciation*, introducing all of the oral elements in systematic order; the whole contained in ninety-eight pages, divided into twenty-eight lessons. Part Second is "Choice Readings," of which twenty-three of its fifty pages are in poetry, ten lines only occurring earlier in the series.

The *Third Reader*, in its First Part, considers articulation, syllables, accent, emphasis, inflections, and marks of punctuation, with their proper tables, sub-divisions and definitions, the whole arranged as reading exercises rather than tasks. The Second Part gives two hundred pages of interesting and well-arranged reading lessons, with foot-notes containing definitions and pronunciations of difficult words, nearly eight hundred in number, which are arranged alphabetically at the end of the book, giving the page where the definition may be found.

The *Fourth Reader*, in its First Part, treats of Practical Elocution, giving diagrams illustrative of its various sub-divisions, and enters into a fuller discussion of the principles set forth in the Third Reader. The "Select Readings" in the Second Part are stories, conversations, and descriptions, divided into sections, in which some leading subject is treated. About one-fourth of the reading matter is in verse. The foot-notes are full and generally excellent. The entire book contains two hundred and sixty-four pages.

The *Fifth Reader*, in its First Part, treats exhaustively of all the technics and mechanics of reading, with diagrams, tables, rules, exercises and examples. Part Second, of which nearly one-half is in poetry, is devoted to spirited selections, generally well adapted for recitation, and illustrating the principles of rhetorical delivery. The foot-notes contain explanations of historical and classical allusions, and biographical sketches of the authors from whose works the selections are taken, in addition to the definition of words as in the two preceding volumes.

We have referred to the amount of poetry in each book, not for the purpose of suggesting the idea that too much space is given to it, but for the reason that we consider it an excellence. Nothing, we believe, awakens so much of enthusiasm in a class as a spirited poem; its construction usually calls for all the delicate lights and shades of expression, and encourages the moderately successful pupil to renewed effort.

Résumé. From first to last, the books give evidence on every page of patient and careful industry. The plan adopted has been carrried out to its minutest detail, and presented in a clear and practical manner. The faults in gradation are so infrequent as to be unworthy of note. The weak point with two or three series of readers is the lack of interest in the *first* and *second* books. We have been especially careful with those numbers of this series, having read every page. We conclude that they are as creditable in this particular as any we

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have seen, and that they are easy and progressive. The selections throughout the series are fresh, inspiring and pure. The author evidently appreciates that reading should be made a *study*, and offers these books as texts in that branch. All of the books of the series are illustrated copiously with wo od-cut of far more than average excellence. There is a vitality and aptness about those occurring in the lower numbers which must interest and please the young. Were we permitted to do so, we would suggest to the publishers the propriety of substituting something more like the living thing for the picture of "The Little Lamb," on page 59 of the Third Reader. As it there stands, it is the sorriest *old sheep* in the world.

The books are faultlessly printed and well bound.

MANUAL LATIN GRAMMAR. Prepared by WILLIAM J. ALLEN, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages and History in the University of Wisconsin; and JOSEPH H. ALLEN, Cambridge, Mass. Twelfth Edition. Published by *Edwin Ginn*, Boston; and *Fred B. Ginn*, Chicago, 1869:

[*Continued.*]

Messrs. Allen lay down, § 5, that "Inflection is a change made in the ending of a word to express some change of meaning." We need hardly say that this definition of inflection is false in almost every point. Supposing we were to confine inflection to suffixes, it would not be true that inflection is a change made in the ending of a word. If we take the word *gravi-s* and change the *s* into *ter*, that will not be inflection, and yet a change of meaning is brought about by the change in the ending. The usual vagueness that pervades the definitions is apparent in the use of the word "ending." In the above, if it means anything at all, it is equivalent to "inflection;" but it would hardly do to say that "Inflection is a change in the inflection of a word," etc. It is little less than absurd to say that inflection is a "change" at all. Inflection indeed has two meanings, but "change" is not either of them. It signifies either a relational suffix, or the classification or enumeration of such suffixes. When I ask a pupil, "What is the nom. sing. inflection of *vir?*" he tells me *vir* has no inflections for that part. If I ask him to inflect *vir*, he knows that I wish him to give *vir* plus its various relational suffixes. If I ask him "How much of the word *avis* is inflection?" he says the final *s*. When I ask him to give the gen. plur. of that word, he does not suppose that I wish him to change *s* into *um*, which would be an impossibility, but to append *another* inflection to the base of the word.

The accuracy of Messrs. Allen's information about the formation of words may be judged of by this definition, still under the heading of "inflection," "That part of a word which remains unchanged is called the Root or Stem. When a primitive form common to Latin with other languages, it is always called the Root: thus the root of *fuga*, *flight*, is found in the English *fugitive*." One might suppose from this that roots and stems never underwent any change. How then does *lapid* become *lapis; tempor*, *tempus?* where do we get *homo*, *supellex*, *iter*, *velle*, *fingo*, *pango*, and so forth?

The distinction drawn between root and stem is almost comical. *Fug* is proved to be a root, because it is found in the Latin word *fug-a*, and the English word *fugitive*—a word derived directly from the Latin! Why is not *fugitiv* a root? It occurs in the Latin *fugitivus*, and English *fugitiv-e*. Perhaps Messrs. Allen would say: Because it is not a primitive form. It is possible that we might agree with them, if we knew what they meant by "primitive form," but that they do not vouchsafe to tell us. Certain it is, that there are not only roots, but stems common to nearly all Indo-Germanic tongues. By the time that Messrs. Allen wrote their "Supplement," they must have come to much clearer ideas about the difference between root and stem, though even there they tell us that "The stem is sometimes the same with the root!" What they really mean is, that both roots and stems are used as word-bases, and that relational suffixes may be added to both. A root is never a stem, and a stem is never a root. That any scholar to-day should confuse things so entirely distinct is hardly credible.

The next statement, still under the heading "Inflection," is worth remembering. "In Latin, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, are inflected to *express* declension (gender, number, and case); adjectives and adverbs to *express* comparison; verbs to *express* conjugation (voice, mood, tense, number, and person)." We suppose there would be no harm done to this sentence, if, instead of "are inflected," we should substitute "receive inflection," and then substitute for "inflection" its definition. The result, expressed briefly, will be: "Nouns, etc., receive a change in their ending to *express* some change in meaning;" but they also receive a change in their ending to *express* declension. It follows that declension=some change in meaning. Again, it appears declension=gender, number and case: therefore, gender, number, and case=some change in the meaning. We might proceed, but this will be sufficient to show the value of these definitions.

Messrs. Allen's next statement, still under "Inflection," is: "Those parts of speech [which are

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not inflected are called Particles." One is tempted to ask by whom. Messrs. Allen seem to approve of the term. If they had taken the trouble to acquaint themselves with its origin and history, they would, we think, have come to the conclusion that it had better be omitted altogether from grammatical nomenclature. It is by no means always used in the sense given by Messrs. Allen. Indeed, the meanings given to the word are very various, as may be seen by consulting Dr. K. E. A. Schmidt's *Beitraege zur Geschichte der Grammatik des Griechischen und des Lateinischen*, pp. 219, sq.

Section 6, on Gender, is very meagre. We are simply told that "Gender may be either natural * * or grammatical,"—what that means we are not informed—that "Names of Rivers (except a few in *a*) are masculine;" that "Most names of plants are feminine;" that "Indeclinable nouns, or phrases used as nouns, are neuter," what the meaning is of common and doubtful gender, (does this distinction serve any good purpose?) and of Epicenes. This is all!

Section 7, on Case, is liable to the same criticism as § 6. There is nowhere given any definition of case.

Section 8, is on Declension, but does not tell what declension is. We have still the old absurd division of nouns into five declensions on the ground of the termination of the genitive singular—a division long ago shown to be misleading as well as unscientific. We are, however, told that the declensions "are distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, *and* by *their* characteristic or leading vowel." The pronoun "their" can of course refer only to "declensions;" it appears therefore that the declensions are distinguished by their characteristic or leading vowel." We are not told, however, how or where we are to look for that vowel, whether in the first syllable or in the last, or whether it forms part of the base or of the inflection. It would seem almost as if Messrs. Allen imagined it belonged to the inflection, for on what other supposition can *i* be said to be the characteristic vowel of the third declension? The term "characteristic," as usually employed, does not of necessity mean a vowel at all, and in the third declension is most frequently not so. Messrs. Allen's classification of the declensions according to leading vowels is utterly false; indeed they do not seem to have known what they meant by the words they used. Ere they wrote their "Supplement" they seem to have had their attention called to their mistakes, and so in it they set the matter somewhat nearer right, without, however, acknowledging their previous errors. They there say: "*Vowel-stems* may be classed in five divisions ending respectively with the vowels *a, e, i, o, u*." How consonant stems are to be classified we are not told at all, except in the Supplement. They seem, moreover, to know no difference between vowel and semi-vowel stems, or to know that the latter are counted in the consonant declension. Had they had this knowledge, they might have replaced their useless rule that "The genitive plural always ends in *um*," by one giving the truth of the matter, namely, that nouns whose characteristic is a vowel have in gen. plu. *ruu*, those whose characteristic ends in a consonant or semi-vowel, in *um* only. So far are they from knowing this that they give the original termination of the gen. plu. as *rum* universally. This is not true and never was true in Latin, or even impliedly in Sanskrit.

Section 9 treats of the First, or *a*, Declension, and occupies nearly a page. The whole account is very meagre. What is meant by compounds WITH *cola* and *gena*?" The reason why *dea* and such words have *bus* in the dative and ablative plural is not given. The accusative of *Æneas* is given as *Ænēăn*, instead of *Ænēān*, and the quantity of the ultima of *Anchisen* it not marked at all. In the paradigm given—*stella*—the *a* is separated from the rest of the word, and the base throughout appears as *stell*. To this there is no objection, only one has a right to demand consistency. When our authors come to the second declension, they get sadly puzzled by their vague ideas about endings and inflections. Finding they cannot break up *vir* in the nominative case, though they assert *ir* is the ending, they leave the inflections of *servus* and *bellum* unseparated. They seem unaware that when a noun of the second declension ends in *er* or *ir*, these are not inflections, but parts of the bases. Nowhere do they treat *ir* or *er* as if it differed in function from *us* or *os*. What they ought to have said is, that when a stem of second declension ends in *ir* or *er*, the inflection of the nom. sing. is dropped. *Vulgus* is given as neuter only: it may be masculine. The remark about the declension of *Orpheus* is very unsatisfactory.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

CORNELL'S PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY: Accompanied with nineteen pages of maps, a great variety of map-questions, and one hundred and thirty diagrams and pictorial illustrations, and embracing a detailed description of the physical features of the United States. By S. S. CORNELL, Member of the American Geographical and Statistical Society. New York: *D. Appleton & Co.*, 1870.

At the threshold of Natural Science lies

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Physical Geography, whose office it is to epitomize the labors of scientific men, and give the great outlines and fundamental principles which must be wrought out more minutely by the more detailed efforts in these separate departments. With this work thoroughly done, one comes to the subjects of Chemistry, Mineralogy, Astronomy, and Natural History in general, in a condition to feel an intelligent interest in their aims and results. In fact, as these sciences only pur u: more *in extenso* what Physical Geography has already touched upon, we naturally demand that such a work shall be free from the errors that usually infest text-books manufactured to satisfy a want felt only by the publisher and author. But it will not suffice that the work be scientifically accurate; it must be rendered intelligible to the grade of minds which will use it, and in form must increase and intensify that interest with which the study is naturally attended. The book in question is printed in fair type and on excellent paper, while the maps and diagrams are so executed as to add not only to the value of the works, but equally as well to its attractiveness.

Warren's Physical Geography has so long and so deservedly held its place as a text-book that the merits of the present work may, perhaps, be best shown by a comparison in a few points.

Warren writes in language which is unintelligible to most pupils of the age at which this study is taken up—of course the pupil fails to get the ideas clearly before his mind. Cornell, while not always free from the use of unexplained terms, is certainly far in advance of Warren. In the main, he seems to avoid the extremes of giving the pupil nothing but technical terms, or on the other hand, of dispensing with terminology essential to science, and which can be laid aside only when the mental food is "boiled down" so that its substance is lost in tedious and valueless stories or popular lectures.

The author states in his preface that, "It has been the primary endeavor to make the book attractive to the learner. To accomplish this, the dry, statistical style has been avoided; trivial details have been left out of view; general principles, leading facts, have been made to stand out in bold relief."

The correspondence between this promise and its fulfillment may best be seen by a comparison of a few subjects taken from Cornell, Warren and Mitchell. Many of the definitions in Warren are not clear; in Mitchell the fault is in great length and an entrance into details appropriate to advanced works upon the same subjects. In Warren the definition of "Rapids" is faulty—I have found that pupils invariably arrived at a wrong conclusion, having the idea of *Rapids* and *Falls* completely reversed. In Cornell, definitions are both clear and concise—and the latter, I hold, is as great a virtue as the former in text-books.

The maps particularly merit attention, being a part of the book generally disliked by pupils, probably on account of indistinctness and sameness. Those in this book are colored so that a glance will give a general idea of the principle which the particular map is intended to illustrate. The comparative extent of the different Wind Zones, Plant Zones, and Zones of Climate, are readily seen, and, at the same time, the Continental and Oceanic Areas, the elevations and depressions, are well defined. The illustrations are very fine, and will certainly impart to a child a desire for knowledge.

The examples given tend to make a greater impression, coming, as they do, within the ordinary limits of geographical knowledge, not selected, as in many works, from some remote region, with an unpronouncable name. One more feature—the correct pronunciation being given where the word occurs—seems an improvement on the plan of classing them into a vocabulary apart from the body of the work, thus requiring less time for the preparation of the lesson.

The book is not absolutely faultless. Where could such an one be found? But it contains all that is really of value in more extensive works upon the same subject, much not found in any other, and is one-third smaller than Warren or Mitchell. JULIA A. DUTRO.

THE ECLECTIC SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES. Cincinnati: *Wilson, Hinkle & Co.* Philadelphia: *Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger.* New York: *Clark & Maynard.*

There are but few educational publishing houses whose imprint is a mint-die, impressed upon genuine metal only. Among these few, however, we may with confidence place that of Messrs. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., of Cincinnati. These gentlemen spare neither money nor labor in order to make their publications worthy of the patronage of all solid educators. We find works with more flash and color about them, more flimsy, eye-catching illustrations, but we rarely find works which can better bear the eye of the critic. The present series of geographies may be confidently recommended to all teachers who believe in the use of geographical text-books for school-classes. We do not, and would rather see geography taught as a "recreative study" by means of wall-maps and chalk diagrams; at the same time, inasmuch as the text-book system is, perhaps of necessity, the one at present prevalent, we cannot but praise the efforts of Messrs.

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Wilson, Hinkle & Co., in trying to deprive it, as far as possible, of its objectionable features.

We should gladly enter into a detailed notice of these elegant works, and at some future day we hope to do so. At present we shall merely say that the prestige enjoyed by both the authors and the publishers will not by them be diminished but confirmed.

Two features are especially deserving of notice: *First*, the care with which the land elevations are marked, making them at once evident to the eye of the pupil. By looking at these maps one sees at a glance the physical features of the regions represented.

Second, the map-drawing element is distributed over the books, and not put away in a corner as if it were an indifferent or subordinate matter. It cannot be too often insisted upon that the productive faculty called into action by the process of map-drawing is one of the most efficacious in insuring accuracy of knowledge. In these geographies the subject of map-drawing is admirably treated, and invested with the importance that is due to it.

We cannot but rejoice to see a scholar like Dr. D. G. Brinton, whose very excellent work on *The Myths of the New World* has won for him so much well-deserved praise both at home and abroad, taking that hearty interest in school education which can prompt him to give his time to the writing of school-geographies. Dr. Brinton has a most worthy and able co-worker in Gen. A. von Steinwehr, who alone prepared the last of the series. The maps and illustrations are worthy of the text, and that is saying a good deal.

THE ECLECTIC SYSTEM OF PENMANSHIP: Consisting of Copy Books, Writing Cards, Hand Book, and Exercise Book. By Messrs. THOMPSON & BOWLERS. *Wilson, Hinkle & Co.*, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The word "Eclectic"—signifying "selected," "chosen,"—frankly used in the title, shows that the authors of this system do not claim originality for their books, except, perhaps, in arrangement.

The Copy Books present a neat and tasteful appearance, having instructions, definitions, explanations, and a variety of movement exercises on the cover. Somewhat similar exercises were introduced on copy book covers some years ago by M. A. Root, of Philadelphia. The paper of the books is of an excellent quality and speaks well for the liberality of the publishers.

Number One. The principal feature of this book is the use of forms requiring free movements of the hand and pen across the page. This plan, formerly used extensively by the best teachers, we are glad to see appear in copy lines. The small letters, i, u, w, v, s, n, m, r, s, e, c, o, a, appear in order, adapted to free movement. Learning the forms of the letters and combining three of them by movement drill in the same copy, must prove, we think, a heavy tax upon the patience and capacity of beginners.

Number Two reviews the short letters contained in *Number One*, and introduces the remaining small letters; also figures and words, spaced as in ordinary writing.

Number Three contains all the small letters, figures, and the capitals, followed by words and short sentences. This book seems complete in itself, and will prove of special value in schools where but one book can be used. It will also be a favorite book in graded schools, used in connection with the preceding numbers. The capitals are plain and practical, and it may not be amiss to notice that they are according to Spencerian models.

The higher numbers give extended practice in sentences, and ladies' and business forms, in the style taught by rules and principles laid down in the lower numbers.

The Writing Cards—thirty-six in number—are nine by thirteen inches in size, and present enlarged models of capitals and small letters, with the principal parts and proportions plainly marked. These are well adapted for illustrating the forms to classes.

The Hand Book—a manual of instruction—possesses the merits of brevity and condensation.

The extensive introduction of copy books in the schools of the country for years past, has given, it is said, a fair profit to publishers. It would now seem from the accumulation of authors on this subject, and the increasing number of publishers clamoring for favor, that crumbs can only be divided, where whole loaves formerly fell to the lot of those who labored in this field.

We take pleasure in commending "The Eclectic System of Penmanship" to a fair and impartial trial in the school-room.

MITCHELL'S NEW OUTLINE MAPS, Large Series: Consisting of, 1. The Hemisphere, size 55x63 in.; 2. North America, size 56x63 in.; 3. The United States, size 50x78 in.; 4. South America, size 55x63 in.; 5. Europe, size 55x63 in.; 6. Asia, size 55x63 in.; 7. Africa, size 55x63. Published by *E. H. Butler & Co.*, Philadelphia.

The mechanical execution of these maps is elegant. The engraving is excellent, the shading delicate and, at the same time, clear and distinct. The drawing is, in the main, careful and accurate,

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and their size is a decided advantage over most school-maps in use. There can be no doubt that the outline principle is the true one, as the undivided attention of the child is thus secured to the forms before him, and it enables the teacher to resort to concert exercises, and thus, at any time, arouse the flagging attention of his class.

We consider the indication of altitudes, by shading and profiles, an admirable feature, as we believe that the great facts of physical geography should be taught at an early period.

But the line where plains imperceptibly pass into plateaus is altogether too heavily shaded. With a single line, or with none at all, there would have been less danger of giving an erroneous impression.

The Mississippi Educational Journal, Vol. I., No. 1., comes to us with a promising look. This is one of the first fruits of the recently established system of public schools in Mississippi, and if everything else make as good a beginning as this, that State will soon have much room for self-gratulation. The *Journal* is well printed on good paper, and has fifty-four pages of reading-matter, partly original and partly selected. It is to be devoted to the "inauguration of a system of free schools upon a comprehensive and enduring basis." It is edited by Mr. H. T. Fisher, well known in Mississippi as former Editor of the *Pilot*, and appears monthly in magazine form. We wish the *Journal* and its cause all success. The price is $2.00 per annum. Address H. T. Fisher, Jackson, Miss.

The Ohio Educational Monthly is one of the few educational periodicals conducted by able hands. The number for February, with its forty-four pages of reading-matter, is worthy of careful perusal from all practical teachers. The article upon School Incentives—a discussion held before the Teachers' Association at Cleveland last August, is deserving of wide attention.

The Education of the Blind.—In Mr. Henry Robyn's article in THE REVIEW for February, some errors occurred in the arrangement of the types used in printing for the blind; also in one or two dates. The errors will be corrected in detail, if any strictures are made on Mr. Robyn's article involving the points referred to.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

D. Appleton & Co., New York:

Elements of Astronomy: accompanied with numerous Illustrations, a Colored Representation of the Solar, Stellar and Nebular Spectra, and Celestial Charts of the Northern and the Southern Hemisphere. By J. Norman Lockyer, Fellow of the Royal Astronomical Society, Editor of "Nature," etc. American Edition, revised and specially adapted to the schools of the United States, 1870.

Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati:

1. Ray's Analytic Geometry. A treatise on Analytic Geometry, especially as applied to the Properties of Conics: including the Modern Methods of Abridged Notation. By Geo. H. Howison, A. M,, 1870.

2. A Complete Algebra for Schools and Colleges, by A. Schuyler, M. A., 1870.

Edwin Ginn, Boston; Chicago, Fred. B. Ginn:

A Latin Reader: Consisting of Selections from Phædrus, Cæsar, Curtius, Nepos, Sallust, Ovid, Virgil, Plautus, Terence, Cicero, Pliny, and Tacitus. With Copious Notes and Vocabulary. Prepared by William F. Allen, A. M., and Joseph H. Allen, 1869.

T. J. Huntington & Co., Broome St., New York:

1. A Compendious Grammar of Attic Greek, with Copious Exercises. By Charles D. Morris, M. A., 1869.

2. A Compendious Grammar of the Latin Language, with Copious Exercises. By Charles D. Morris, M. A., 1870,

Miscellaneous:

1. New Exposition of the Science of Knowledge. By J. G. Fichte. Translated from the German, by A. E. Kroeger. Published in St. Louis, Mo., 1869.

2. A Primer of Algebra, designed to supplement the Treatise of J. W. Sherwin. By George H. Howison, M. A., Cambridge. Printed by the Riverside Press, 1870.

We have also received in nine sheets, from L. W. Schmidt, New York, H. Kiepert's Wall Map of Ancient Greece. Scale 1,500 00. Second Edition Corrected. Berlin, Dietrich Reimer 1869.

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Education at Home and Abroad.

ST. LOUIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body convened at the High School, on Saturday, the 11th instant. Mr. Greene conducted the exercises in Music. Mr. Harris addressed the meeting, giving, in detail, a budget of items, the accumulations of the month, in relation to the working of the schools internally and externally. He intimated that teachers should be calm and self-possessed when visitors enter the room. They should not be flurried even if some eminent dignitary—as, for instance, a School Superintendent of a neighboring city—should enter, but calmly proceed with their work.

"Even poor teachers by diligent perseverance in their labors can excel; such need not be discouraged. Some misunderstood the design of the semi-annual examination, and complaints were made that the questions given to one grade were not suitable for another. Since the same questions were given to all the schools no injustice was done. No one suspects the pupils in the lower grades to get as high a per cent. as those in the higher, on the same questions; but a comparison can be made by noting the difference in the per cent. (that could not be made in any other way,) that is valuable to the teachers and to the Superintendents.

"Teachers should be careful in the supervision of the scholars, not only in school, but as far as possible outside, so that their demeanor may exert a civilizing influence on each other. A proper discipline and order should be maintained in school during noon time.

"A syllabus on Drawing has been prepared and will be furnished to the schools. They are designed for instruction as well as examination, and will be used in the seventh and a part of the sixth grades. A syllabus on Physiology is also prepared, to be used in the same way and in the same grades."

Mr. Owen, of the Lafayette School, spoke of the subject of spelling:

"The importance of this branch is over-looked in our schools. Spelling and pronunciation should be carefully taught. Teachers ought to know how to pronounce all common words. He had noticed a variety of pronunciations, (not in the dictionaries,) not only in his own school, but in others.

"Pupils should be drilled, by constant exercises, in writing words. Frequent explanations should be given to interest the scholars in spelling. Words that are similar in sound or in meaning compared with each other, for instance, buffalo with buff and buffoon."

Mr. F. Cook spoke of the subject of reading:

"If restricted to two text-books in teaching, I should select arithmetic and reading as the best adapted to the purposes of education.

"The Reader gives a practical knowledge of language, which is the means for the comprehension of thought in the pursuit of culture.

"Natural and Moral History, Grammar, Geography and Spelling, are involved in the study of it.

"Instruction must be given—

"1st. In Articulation, by teaching the elementary sounds.

"2d. In Pronunciation, by combining the sounds into words.

"3d. In Modulation and Inflection, by developing the power of the voice to express the different emotions of joy, grief, hatred, envy, pain, etc.

"The wise teacher will take advantage of that faculty which is the most prominent in his pupil, and by using it secure a more certain furtherance of his purposes. Children are the greatest of *mimics*. The expression of the emotions can be taught only by *imitation* until the pupil has acquired a facility in the use of words, and a more comprehensive knowledge of their meaning.

"*Taste* and *Expression* in reading must come from the scholar himself. An effective means, however, of calling it forth, is in the assigning of proper lessons for the next day, when the teacher may, by appealing to the imagination, largely increase the interest of the pupils.

"The great condition for thoroughness in reading is attention. This can be obtained directly by occasional concert reading, and analysis of sounds, by concert corrections of errors, and by spelling the words of the lesson. Indirectly, by securing a comprehension of the general character of the piece, by a cultivation of the imagination, or power to dramatize the characters, sentiments, and emotions expressed."

Mr. Miller and Mr. Gilfillan participated in the discussion.

Mr. Wilcox, of the Lyon School, read an essay on *Taste*, to the teachers of the sixth and seventh grades. He introduced his subject by a reference to his boyhood days—to the impressions made upon his mind by the appearance of external objects.

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"There are things in nature that give us pain to look upon—such as a deformed person or a monstrosity.

"The faculty we call *taste* has its root in our nature, and whatever our education has been, congruity produces a pleasant impression upon the mind, while incongruity produces the opposite.

"Beauty is of two kinds—intrinsic and relative. There are many old castles in Europe that look rough, gloomy and unshapen, that in the abstract are far from beautiful, but when we consider their strength as fortifications, and the security they have afforded their occupants in perilous times, they become relatively grand, and, doubtless, it is owing mainly to these historic associations that travellers go in extacies over their grandeur and magnificence.

"In our city there are many fine residences and grounds with but little taste displayed either in the architecture of the houses or in the arrangement and adornment of the grounds. In many places straight walks start for the front door and stop short against a sugar-loaf mound, fringed with clam shells,

"The same feeling of propriety or impropriety, congruity or incongruity, is excited when we see persons oddly dressed. We laugh when we see a small boy wearing his father's coat and boots.

"Dignity must be distinguished from pride and selfishness, it must be coupled with propriety. Many teachers have false notions of dignity in their relations with their pupils.

"An assumed dignity is in bad taste, and the individuals clothed with it should read the well-known stanza of Burns:

> 'Oh wad some power the giftie gie us
> To see oursels as ithers see us;
> It would fra mony a blunder free us,
> An' foolish notion.'

"Teachers are supposed to be educated, to have large and comprehensive views, but still capable of making further advances in knowledge. They should cultivate their tastes not only in the knowledge of the few arts, but in the proprieties of life.

"I think the doctrine preached by St. Paul to the Hebrews suitable for teachers as well as other people. If it is good in religion it is good in regard to intellectual culture."

In Room No. 9 Mr. Davidson read a paper on Lyric Poetry, in which he defined a lyric poem to be "An expression of a complex, involuntary feeling, or emotional state of the mind, bodied forth in disconnected, sensuous images, by means of rhythmical languages." He then proceeded to speak of the origin and progress of lyric poetry, showing that it keeps pace with the development of subjectivity. He called attention to the different emotions produced by the same circumstances in peoples of different ages. As an illustration of this, he analyzed and compared the Night Scene in Alkman with Göthe's *Ueber allen Gipfeln is Ruh*,' Dante's *Era gia l'ora che volge il disio*, Herbert's *Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright*, and Byron's *Soft hour! which wakes the wish and melts the heart.* He then gave a full analysis of Tennyson's *Break, break, break*, and the Scotch *Helen of Kirkconnel*, which he considered to be among the most perfect specimens of lyric poetry.

In the German department, Mr. Soldan gave instructions in regard to making out the German reports.

Mr. Wilson, of the Clinton School, read an interesting paper on the Methods of Teaching Grammar. "This can be taught from the reading-book without a book in grammar.

"Select the nouns and learn their properties from the teacher; pursue the same method with the other parts of speech, and pupils can become quite familiar with all the common forms and inflections before a book is put into their hands."

Three committees were appointed to report at the next meeting on methods of teaching reading, grammar, and imparting general information.

Prof. Newton, of Yale, suggests as an excellent position for a national observatory a locality a few miles east of St. Louis, on the 90th meridian from Greenwich. If American longitudes where reckoned from that meridian instead of from Washington, they would differ from Greenwich longitudes by just 90 degrees. The time also of that position would differ from Greenwich time by exactly six hours. We trust that our scientific men and public-spirited citizens generally will interest themselves to secure the realization of this most excellent and practical suggestion.

TEXAS.—Gov. Davis numbers the scholastic population at over one hundred and sixty thousand. Of this number the largest part are without any educational advantages whatever. He earnestly calls the attention of the Legislature to their omission to make an appropriation last session, and says: "I trust your attention will be called to the supplying of this omission. The maintenance of a good system of public schools I regard as second in importance to no other object of government under our institutions. The people expect us to attend to this matter at once, as every day's delay is of irreparable damage to the growing generation, for whose wants we are called upon to provide."

The permanent school fund amounts, in cash value, to the magnificent sum of $2,575,000. To the income of this fund is to be added the poll-tax and one-fourth of the other taxes, all of which, it is estimated, will amount to about $500,000 in the current year, available for educational purposes.

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THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1871.

NATURE TEACHING.

THE REVIEW designs to devote these first pages in this and some subsequent numbers to familiar talks about Nature Teaching, in the hope that they may aid in the work of the teachers of primary and intermediate departments and of the country schools. Outdoor life and beauty is again awakening beneath the gentle touch of Spring, and many voices invite you to look beyond your school-room walls. You remember Longfellow's sketch of the life of Agassiz, beginning with the child in the cradle, in the beautiful Pays de Vaud:

"And Nature, the old nurse, took
The child upon her knee,
Saying, 'Here is a story-book
Thy father hath written for thee.'

"And he wandered away and away,
With Nature, the dear old nurse,
Who sang to him night and day
The rhymes of the universe.

"And whenever the way seemed long,
Or his heart began to fail,
She would sing a more wonderful song,
Or tell a more marvellous tale."

Teachers, it is your work to lead children into this communion with nature. You have no great museums or libraries, even if you had time to master them; but you have nature itself, boundless in resources for illustration and instruction, and nature-loving children to help you. Specimens of natural history you must have, but they will have additional interest if collected by yourself or your pupils. You need them; for you are to teach, primarily things, but to put with the things all the knowledge of them that can be obtained by observation or from books.

First, then, collect and preserve natural objects. Let us begin with entomology, for its specimens are easily obtained and kept.

People call them indiscriminately bugs, but we will not. Suppose the first to be secured is one of the beetles, let us begin to classify by noticing wherein this creature, with its gauzy wings folded under the horny elytra or wing covers, differs from bugs properly so called, that are always either wingless or have but thin upper wings.

The Lightning Spring Beetle

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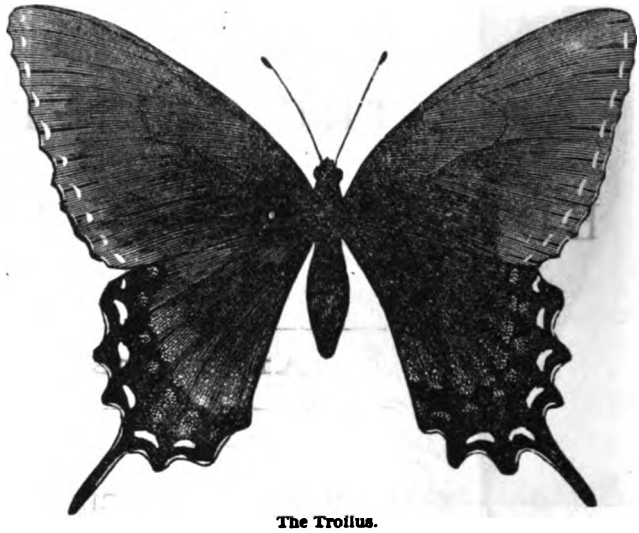

The Troilus.

Next sails along one of the gay lepidoptera. A boy secures him under his hat, and you have at once a collection that will furnish materials for many hours of study. Confessing to a weakness for beauty, we give our first attention to our showy captive, whose long, sharp wing-points indicate that he is no plebeian buterfly, but one of those whom Linnæus calls "knights." As you hold him and observe the beauty of his broad-spread wings, you notice that your hand is soiled by the fine dust that rubs from them at the slightest touch. If this dust is examined under the microscope, it proves to be beautifully marked, feather-like scales. It is from this peculiarity that this sub-order, which includes butterflies and moths, is named, for insects are divided into sub-orders, characterized by differences in the structure of their wings. These are termed lepidoptera—a Greek term signifying scale-winged. Teach children to observe how these differ from the beetles that are characterized by gauzy under-wings for flight, which are usually kept curiously folded under hard wing covers. The beetles are therefore called coleoptera, or shield-winged. Again, call attention to the coil under the butterfly's head, which unrolls into a long, slender tube, through which he is able to draw his appropriate food from the deep-lying nectaries of flowers, and contrast this with the strong, laterally moving jaws of the carnivorous beetles, of which the common pinching bug is an example.

The order of orthoptera, or straight-winged, includes the grasshoppers and locusts, which are readily recognized and classed. They have also most marked characteristics which admirably fit them for their peculiar life.

How few have noticed the beauty of the folded, fan-like under-wing of the grasshopper, or even are aware that he has two sets of wings, or, indeed, that he even has any wings at all—unless it be boys who have caught them for bait, and generally they consider them as of two different species—not knowing that the wings are developed late in the season. And how beautiful and peculiar are the wings of the next order—the neuroptera—the net-winged or gauze-winged! The swift-winged dragon-fly is a conspicuous

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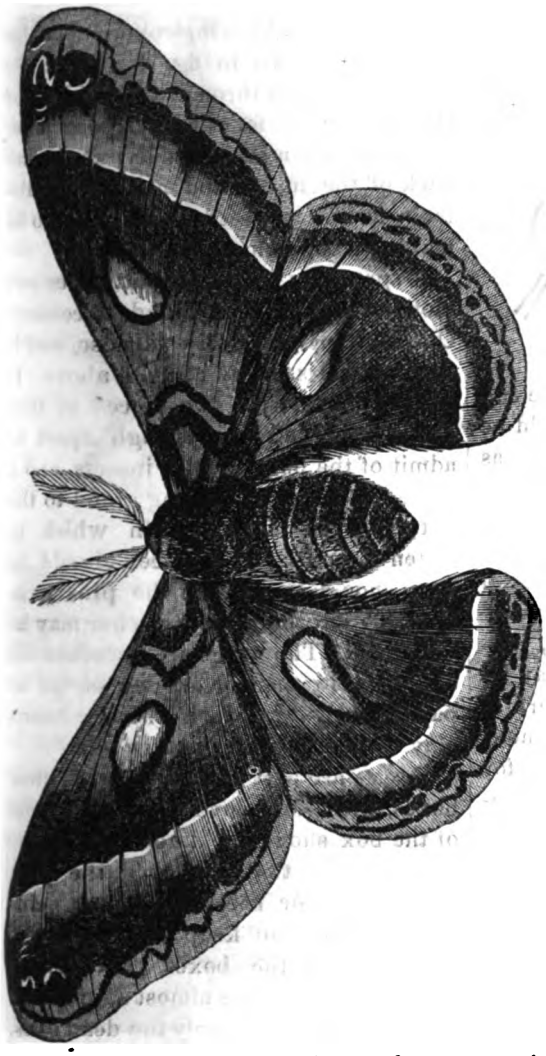

The Cecropia Moth.

example, and he is as harmless as he is beautiful, yet many a little child has fled from them in terror lest they should "sew their ears up tight." It is the teacher's province to replace such superstitions by some genuine knowledge of the creatures that God has made for the pleasure and instruction of his children.

I need not here enumerate the Linnæan orders. I have only aimed to hint how a very few of the facts that come within the sphere of your daily observation can be turned into instructive lessons, and to suggest that the more general principles of classification can be taught even to primary classes. I assure you that if you commence this work you will find it replete with interest, and that new lessons will continually suggest themselves. The marvelous strength of minute insects, the remarkable skill which they exercise, their patience and perseverance, have to be witnessed to be really appreciated. I know of nothing better than such simple lessons as I have indicated to teach habits of accurate observation, and the best gift you can bestow upon your scholars is the ability to see what is worth seeing in the world about them.

The moth that visits your house at night, gently killed with chloroform, and impaled on a pin, by his gaily-colored wings attracts the thoughtless child, while the structure of the down that covers them charms the wisest philosopher. The species that we illustrate—the Cecropia moth—is one of the finest of our nocturnal lepidoptera, and it is not uncommon in this region. If you are looking for them you will be sure during the summer to adorn your collection with this or the Polyphemus, or some other giant moth. The work of collection, diligently prosecuted, will result in most gratifying success. A few practical suggestions may be of service.

A hand-net is a great convenience in collecting, and it can be made so as to serve for two purposes—that of beating the bushes for those insects which fall directly when jarred, and also for catching those which fly. It should be made

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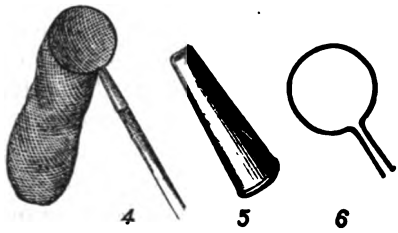
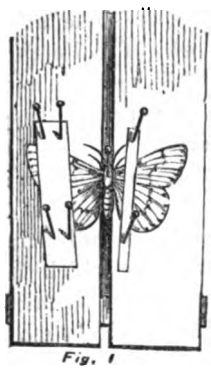
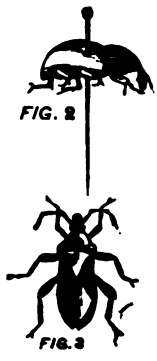
as shown in fig. 4. Get a tinsmith to make a hollow handle of brass or tin, about eight inches long, as shown in fig. 5; then bend a piece of stout wire



as shown in fig. 6, and let it be soldered into the handle, which should be then half filled with molten lead so as to secure the wire perfectly. The bag may be made of any slight material. A wooden handle may be inserted if desired. Three more things are essential for the collection. The first is a wide-mouthed vial containing alcohol, into which beetles and other insects may be dropped to kill them. But butterflies and other delicately-colored specimens should not be placed in alcohol, and for them a small vial of chloroform is essential. A brush extending into the chloroform is very convenient, and a single drop of the liquid placed on the proboscis and on the side under the wings produces death. Small boxes for holding insects that are to be kept alive complete the requisites.

The next thing to be done, after capturing and killing, is to pin them. Coleoptera (beetles) should be pinned





through the right wing-cover, near the thorax, as shown in fig. 2. Other insects are pinned through the middle of the back, well forward. About one-third of the pin should be left above the back of the insect, and a uniform distance in this respect has much to do in making a collection look well.

A spreading board for butterflies and moths will next be found necessary. One that answers every purpose, and is economical, is shown at fig. 1, above. It can be made with two pieces of thin board, being left wide enough apart to admit of the body of the insects, and a piece of cork or pith being glued to the bottom over this space, in which to fasten the pins. The braces should be deep enough to prevent the pins from touching anything the stretcher may be laid upon. The wings are stretched out and kept in their places by strips of paper, until dry, when the specimens may be placed in the case or box.

Insects are best kept in tight, shallow boxes, with glass covers. The bottom of the box should be lined with some soft substance that will hold the pins, such as cork or beeswax. Great pains must be taken to keep pieces of camphor-gum in the boxes always, as living insects will be almost sure to find their way in and destroy the dead ones, if this precaution is not adopted. It may be kept in pieces of thin fabric pinned in the corners.

You will gradually learn for yourself the favorite haunts of different species, and will find out where to turn over old sticks and stones, to be rewarded by insect trophies.

Your observations will continually be supplying you with facts, but you will need books to aid you in classifying and fully understanding the objects you find. The most available book is Jaeger's Life of North American Insects. This work is not expensive, and

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at the same time it is admirably suggestive and instructive. One can scarcely read it without being filled with the same enthusiasm that animates the author. "Figurier's Insect World" is an admirable work. The Missouri Entomological Reports and the American Entomologist are full of the most recent and valuable information. At all events, do not fail to have some first-class elementary work, such as "Hooker's Natural History," which contains a fine article on the wonderful process of insect metamorphosis, and another on insect structure. A chapter is given to each of the sub-orders, and a very clear idea is conveyed of the characteristics of the genera that compose them.

Another department of Natural History will form the subject of our next illustrated article.

E. F. HOBART.

A FEW HINTS TOWARDS THE RATIONALE OF TEACHING COMPOSITION.

Writing compositions is so presented that children almost invariably conceive the most violent distaste for the exercise—a distaste entirely different in kind from that evinced towards other modes of intellectual effort. The experience of one is the experience of most, if, indeed, it be not the experience of all but a very select few. The pupil is directed to "write a composition;" is assured that the undertaking is very easy; is, perhaps, provided with a subject, and then is called upon for a perfected product. Without the slightest idea of what he is aiming at; with the diffidence which affects the efforts even of the self-confident, when engaged in an undertaking understood by all but themselves; with the natural conviction that success is at best but a matter of chance; the pupil undertakes his disagreeable task and brings, as the result of honest effort, just such a product as might reasonably have been looked for. The teacher corrects words misspelled or incorrectly used; perhaps gives the neophyte a series of rules (to whose application and usefulness the only bar is the fact that the pupil does not comprehend them) and sends the scholar away to repeat the same process. Eventually a really strong pupil, stimulated by his relative success, struggles to the light, and, through manifold failures, attains a vantage ground where his instructor can do him no farther harm even if he cannot greatly aid him; the rest, like weakly Spartan children, are not counted in the reckoning. That prejudice should universally prevail among scholars, and that teachers should be disinclined to spend much labor in this field is natural under such circumstances; and it therefore seems worth while to present the claims of this department of school study, and to point out such remedies as have approved themselves.

That much in this direction can be accomplished even in the lower grades of our schools, I am satisfied, from watching pupils whose teachers have given some rational attention to this training. In any class we find many good minds, many excellent scholars, and few good writers; an essay is the ghost which haunts the life of most pupils. Yet, writing with ease and correctness is as susceptible of communication as any other knowledge. Writing has two elements: the one formal, the

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other spiritual; the one purely mechanical, and therefore teachable; the other the result of thought or inspiration, and therefore excitable but not to be created. Literature gives us manifold exemplars of each class. There have been those who have entirely mastered the mechanics of writing; Pope "lisped in numbers, for the numbers came;" Swinburne has poems whose form is perfect, but whose sense is yet to be discovered by his most ardent admirers; we have public speakers and private conversationalists, who are always ready to talk easily, gracefully, and fluently, and yet, who never enrich us by a single idea; we have pupils noticeable for their command of language, who never seem to associate words and thought; we have authors, speakers, talkers and pupils, who, with greater mental powers and more exact attainments, are inferior to their weaker competitors; and we have also, fortunately for us, those who fully and fairly unite the two elements, and are the masters of our language.

Teachers are upon this subject peculiarly liable to an error from which all are not free when engaged with studies more easily mastered. They forget the steps—weary and many to most—which have led them to whatever success they may have attained, and, not understanding, do not provide for, the wants of those who are but beginning their course. They therefore seize the question only on its formal side, and as a result the pupil altogether mistakes the essentials of an essay. His first idea is that *quantity* is the distinctive mark of success; that if he can fill one or more pages he has been highly successful; but that if he were really to say in a few lines, something worth the saying, he would only have to record a melancholy failure. Then, too, teachers, by formal corrections, leave an earnest pupil with the feeling that each successive effort is equally as difficult as the first, until disheartened by repeated ill-success, he yields to the prejudice which seems to be the common heritage of pupils, or, mayhap, by yielding to the temptation to commit wholesale theft, is taught to undervalue "a sacred regard for truth?"

The ancients are still our models in art, be it plastic, mimetic, or art as displayed in the creations of literature. As we are willing to suppose that the world has never seen abilities at all comparable to those of Grecian splendor and Roman grandeur, we naturally inquire what methods they followed, that they attained so much higher results. I do not propose drawing parallels between the Demosthenes of ancient and modern times, but to speak solely with reference to school-work. One distinctive feature of the ancient teachers of rhetoric was, that they did not expend all their strength upon the form, but sought first to evoke some substance upon which their rules for form might be exercised. All our books upon rhetoric and composition-writing—if we except a few of quite modern date—teach one not how to write, but how to write elegantly, after he has, by some unknown means, learned to write easily. "Blair's Lectures" is a valuable book—after one has largely ceased to need its aid—but one might as well use it as a text-book in language as for teaching him how to write. Indeed, when one knows just for what such a book is valuable, he is liable to suffer from its use, by having his thoughts engrossed by rules for mechanical execution—rules which frequently only fetter the freedom of thought.

Starting, then, with a pupil, the course which, tested by its results, will yield the best return, seems to me to be this:

Never give a beginner the simple direction to "write a composition," unless you are satisfied that your words

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are to him as full of meaning as they are to yourself. Suggest to him some subject which, from your knowledge of his character and attainments, lies in his power to deal with. If, as is most probable, the *title* does not suggest the *theme* or *real subject*, talk with the scholar until he sees clearly the object which he is to have in view. Let him then make his effort, and return whenever, and as often as he may find himself unable to proceed; satisfy yourself of the nature of his difficulty, show him its nature, and then let him make a new trial. After a few such efforts, you will secure the best product of which the pupil is capable, and will have rendered him such aid as will speedily enable him to write with confidence and ability. After a few efforts the pupil will seize the content of your directions, be able to find his own subjects, and dispense with your immediate aid, and cost but little labor and anxiety. But where shall one look for subjects likely to call forth the efforts of ordinary minds? Not in "Aids to Composition," though these may be made tributary and yield valuable assistance; not to every-day topics, which, from being common, are so often confounded with those which are really simple: Pride, Anger, Perseverance, and their like, are likely to be farther beyond the powers of the pupil than others seemingly more difficult. The teacher must mainly look to himself for subjects; if he knows the bent of his pupil's mind and the nature of the obstacles likely to be met with, not a day will pass without subjects' suggesting themselves, and these can be made available, when need requires. For example, I recently had a pupil reported to me "for neglecting his essays;" he protested that this neglect arose not from unwillingness but from incapacity; he insisted that he "could not see the use of any one's being compelled to study a lesson unsuited to his inclination and to his ability." I led him on to a defense of this position, and then said: "You have suggested a subject, you have given me the substance of an able essay; go home and work it out, and you will have a better product than you have yet realized, while at the same time you will learn how to convert your weakness into strength."

Doubtless, such a course will, at first, call upon the teacher for a liberal expenditure of time and labor; it will, doubtless, demand active exertion instead of mechanical effort; and yet, if it be economy to expend the time and labor which an undertaking demands, rather than to fritter away a few moments, without finally accomplishing our end, then does this method make the least demands consistent with success.

To re-state the position: Let the teacher see that the pupil knows exactly what he is trying to do with his subject; let him see that the subject is chosen not because it strikes the fancy, or because it is such that any one can write something upon it; not because, in his misery, the pupil is indifferent to a choice; but solely because it is likely to call forth the pupil's self. Let the pupil be shown that by always making note of what interests him, he will ever have an abundant supply of themes; let the pupil feel that any thought which comes stamped with the pupil's own self, will, at worst, be a new statement of an old truth; let the teacher do these things, and he will have done much to remove or prevent the common prejudice, and to evoke such efforts as may lie within the pupil's power.

It is not worth while for a beginner to correct every error, and thus to be depressed by the knowledge of his absolute deficiencies. First, let him write—write freely and with confidence, and

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then we can teach him to write well. In making corrections, I do not deem it wise to pass the essay in review; correct errors in spelling and grammar; substitute for words misused others more appropriate; under such corrections, the pupil is like a man viewing his own image in a glass. Indicate corrections, but do not make them; let the papers pass back and forth, until all errors have become evident to the pupil and have been corrected by him; the labor of the teacher is much less than it would appear, and the errors, once corrected by the pupil, are not repeated. Upon this point I insist the more strongly, because teachers of rhetoric are here most apt to be in error. It is so easy to discover errors in the efforts of those who have not yet advanced as far as ourselves; it is so pleasant and so natural to show our own superiority and to reap a harvest of personal admiration; it is so difficult to sink self in one's work, or rather to find one's true self in one's work, that many shrink from trouble and seem more anxious to ascertain "how not to do it," than to do the best that can possibly be done for their pupils at the least cost that will actually purchase this result. I have here suggested two classes of errors, from one or the other of which too few are exempt. To forget the real object of effort in one's personal success is too common to excite remark, and yet, from being so common, it needs to be carefully guarded against. There are teachers who unconsciously so occupy the minds of their pupils that these lose all individuality and "move and have their being" in hero-worship. Hero-worship is, doubtless, agreeable when we are the idol at whose shrine the incense is burned, but our satisfaction is hardly an equivalent for the child's want of improvement. There are critics—and it is sad to say that they number in their ranks many who should from their ability be excluded from such company—critics who forget the true end of criticism, and use the occasion for a display of their own powers; there are critics who are little else than intellectual bullies; critics who, being intellectually stronger, use their powers as unfairly as the bully who possesses great physical strength. Every one has enjoyed Macaulay's essay on Montgomery, but I suspect that our enjoyment arises rather from the evidence of Macaulay's power than from any suspicion of his justness. Critics claim that it is necessary for them to protect mankind, but so long as a Keats could be falsely judged by an intellectual Jeffreys, so long as we remember that they sometimes find a Byron who can handle their own weapons, so long shall we be diffident about unqualifiedly condemning all that does not suit our individual tastes.

As to the practicability of teaching children to write, I would say that I have found that a class of forty, all of whom were convinced that they could never write, all of whom brought with them the prejudice excited by previously unsuccessful efforts; a class containing a sufficient variety of capacity to make it a fair standard of comparison: that such a class, in the course of a scholastic, year, could (without abridging or neglecting their other lessons) be made to conquer largely their prejudice, and to write with considerable ease and correctness. I have felt that could the same pupils have come to me with proper previous training, they might have been taught to write with great vigor and sometimes with elegance.

It may be not irrelevant to mention a few exercises which have been used with advantage.

As a class exercise, subjects have been selected, sufficient in number and variety, to ensure reasonable resources

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on the part of each pupil, sufficiently removed from the trite and hackneyed to prohibit platitudes; and the pupils have been required, while in the recitation room, to do what they could with the subject of their choice. The result has been a rapid advance in fluency and correctness, and a clearer appreciation of the fact that even they can learn to write. This exercise has sometimes been varied by allowing time for preparation, but requiring the effort to be really extemporaneous.

Of course, such a plan cannot be made mechanical, but teaching, if it is ever to be a profession and not an occupation, must cease to be looked upon as a mechanical exercise.

We laugh at the folly of those who spent their lives in seeking the philosopher's stone; but there are teachers, and these not a few, who are always in search of some method which will render unnecessary any exertion upon their own part.

H. H. MORGAN.

SINGING IN SCHOOL.

The practice of singing is well nigh universal in all schools, public and private; a majority having some provision for systematic instruction in this important branch of education. We pity those teachers who "find no time to sing"—we fear that some of them "find time" to scold; that others take a great deal of time in rapping on the desk or book "to keep order;" and the oft-repeated "Be quiet now," "No talking," and other stereotyped phrases, consume as much time every day as would the singing of a dozen tunes. The music would help to make both teacher and pupils better, but the other process is generally a hardening one. But more to be pitied are the children who are prevented from giving utterance to the gladness of their hearts in joyous strains; who cannot learn the beautiful lessons of love and duty so effectively taught in song; whose homes are deprived of many a ray of happiness that music brings, alike to the cottage of the lowly and the mansion of the rich. We believe that teachers can *gain* time by making a liberal, but judicious use of singing. The scholar's progress depends upon the attention and energy he has given to his lesson, and not the *time spent in learning it.* During some of the hot days of spring and summer, when teachers and pupils feel languid and dull, if the teacher says: "Scholars, stand, sing 'Roses in Bloom,' or 'Flowing Free,'" —thus resting and refreshing body and mind—has she not gained time? The song took, perhaps, *two minutes,* and very probably the pupils will, in the next fifteen, accomplish more than they would otherwise have done *in an hour*—a gain of nearly *forty hours,* in an ordinary room, to say nothing of the increase in *mental discipline.* As an agent in calling forth the kindly feelings and sympathies of the human heart—even from the hardened and vicious—it bears the impress of its divine Author; it calms the boisterous and turbulent spirits, and rouses to action the dormant feelings. It is one of the most effective means of inculcating those lessons of piety, patriotism, filial and social duty, without which education is worse than useless; and, unlike many lessons which are learned only to be forgotten, *they will never die.* Engraven on life's tablet, it needs only a passing breeze to waken them to life, though they may have

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slumbered to old age. All educators recognize singing as a powerful agency in moral and æsthetic culture. But singing is not simply a pleasant exercise, a pastime and recreation, a mere matter of imitation, to which the pupils listen and, parrot-like, repeat what they have heard. It is a science to be taught, a study to be pursued, an art to be practiced, not in the school-room simply, but in every grade of society. In teaching arithmetic, there is a certain order or system from which no teacher will materially vary; but in singing the greatest diversity exists, even among the best of teachers, while with the poor ones *there is no system at all.* A distinguished teacher and author once said: "I often wonder that we music-teachers are tolerated among educated men, when I consider in what a slipshod, unphilosophical way so many of us present our subject." Nor is this strange, for, until recently, there has been no book or series of books sufficiently complete and progressive to enable children to learn to read music. We take it for granted that the ultimate end and aim of teaching singing is to make independent singers, just as in learning the piano or violin, the parent expects his child to so learn the instrument as to play, not only the pieces he has taken from his teacher, but all music suited to his age and present attainments. How many pupils throughout our land can sing ordinary music at sight when they leave school? Not one in a hundred. Very few, indeed, get enough of *practical* knowledge to be of use. Our pupils learn the names of the different musical characters, and can often pass a good examination in musical notation, and all this without being able to sing a simple melody by note. The truth is, we teach singing *by ear*; all of us *do*, and *must*, for our song-books are filled with such difficult tunes that it would be utter folly to try to teach them by note Ten preparatory examples in Latin would hardly fit a boy to read Virgil, nor will *ten times ten* easy lessons in singing enable him to read ordinary music. I have examined nearly every singing-book published in this county during the last twenty years; have used many of them in schools and classes, and not one of them gives one-twentieth part of the necessary elementary drill, while many of the so-called "preparatory lessons" are more difficult than the tunes themselves. Suppose we throw away our series of graded readers, and put in their place two books containing *selected pieces* suitable for declamation and recitation; suppose the teacher visits each school once a week, and spends from twenty to forty minutes with each class—the pupils of two rooms being brought into one for the lesson—and that he be expected to prepare them to recite correctly from thirty to fifty pieces during the year, how much of *actual reading* will he teach? Undoubtedly they will learn something—the names of the letters, many easy words and phrases—while here and there will be found one who has enough energy to work his way through and become a good reader. Dr. Lowell Mason, with his knowledge and experience as a teacher and composer, might have given to the world, ten years ago, a series of music readers that would have done more for the advancement of musical culture than all his other books. After a correspondence with him of nearly a year upon this subject he wrote me: "I have fully decided to prepare this series of Graded Songs, and have made the necessary arrangements to commence at once." The death of one of his sons a few days afterwards, with other circumstances, prevented him from doing so. Two little books, entitled "First Step in Music," by G. B

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Loomis, of Indianapolis, have recently been published, a review of which appeared in the January number of this magazine. Permission was granted me to use these books in three schools—the Carroll, Eliot and Laclede—and after a trial of three months I now give some idea of what has been accomplished, especially as the teachers themselves have done most of the work.

Unfortunately, we obtained only books enough for one class (Nos. 1 and 2), and the other classes used them on "singing day" only, when I carried them from room to room, and let the pupils sing some of the lessons which they had learned during the week. The teachers and scholars seemed to take great interest in it, and one or more lessons were always to be seen neatly printed on the blackboard, which were practiced as a *part* of the daily musical exercise prescribed by the board. At the last lesson in the Carroll school I found on the board in Nos. 11 and 12, lesson 39, which the children sang correctly, beating time. I then wrote the next exercise, they singing as fast as I made the notes, which they afterwards sang, *in time*, correctly. This lesson contains five *tones*, and the *skip* from "one" to "three." Nos. 9, 10, 11 and 12 sing from the board only, using either *names* or *syllables*. They also sing *as many songs* as any of my classes of like grade, and more than some of them. When Nos. 1 and 2 had finished the First Book they passed it over to 3 and 4, and they, in turn, to 5 and 6, and before the close of the term I expect to use it in 11 and 12. Nos. 1 and 2 will finish the Second Book in one more lesson; 3 and 4 will then take it, having already learned twenty pages from the blackboard; 5 and 6 were on page 27 of the First Book, while 7 and 8 are only a few pages behind them. I am willing to let any one put a tune or exercise on the board in any of these rooms, using such tones, notes and skips as they have had in their lessons, assured that they can and will sing it correctly, though, in some cases, it may require more than one trial. This is said the more willingly, because I feel that the credit mainly belongs to the teachers and scholars themselves.

HENRY M. BUTLER.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

III.

DUTIES OF TEACHERS.

While substantial aid can be given by the *people* and *school officers* in providing suitable accommodations and appliances, and in supervising schools, yet the burden of the work devolves upon the teacher. The best school buildings, furnished in the most ample manner; the most careful inspection of the schools, will avail nothing if the teacher is worthless.

The first requisite, then, is a thorough preparation for the work of teaching. Every teacher should be trained in some normal school or college. The most valuable contribution now making by our American experience to the advancement of public education, is the demonstration of the wisdom of giving to every girl, rich or poor, an education which shall correspond in amount to that given to boys in the same school; and particularly to those who manifest the requisite tact, taste and character, an appropriate training for the work of teaching. Our experience has shown us

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not only the capacity of women, but their eminent fitness for the whole work of domestic and primary instruction, as assistants in every grade of schools, and also as principal teachers in country schools generally. In fact, the great work of education in the country, and even in towns and cities, is now carried on principally by female teachers. Their more gentle and refined manners, and purer morals; their instinctive love for the society of children, and greater tact in their management; their talent for conversation, quickness of perception to discern the difficulties that beset the path of youth and embarrass the young mind; their powers, when properly developed, of governing the most rebellious and stubborn children by mild and moral influences, are facts generally understood, and are acknowledged by the best educators.

I have stated that the first requisite is thorough preparation for the work of teaching, and in this respect we can learn an important lesson from European countries. No person can be a *teacher* in Germany, France, Austria, Switzerland, or Holland, until he has passed a severe and searching examination, and until he has produced testimonials from responsible persons of irreproachable moral character. This examination, which includes both intellectual and moral qualifications, is conducted by able and impartial men; among whom are found the religious ministers and the professors of the normal college.

The examination of teachers is very searching. The teacher's position in society is honorable. The governments have fully recognized this fact, and have done all in their power to elevate the profession. An intelligent Englishman speaks thus of Prussia:

"The first exertions of the government are wholly dovoted to the improvement of the intellectual and moral characters of her *teachers*, and to increase their number. They determined to make the name of "teacher" honorable, and, in itself, a guaranty to every parent of the character and attainments of the man who bore it. To attain this end they denied all access to the ranks of the profession to any except those who proved themselves worthy of admittance. The ranks of the profession are open to all educated and moral men, *wherever* or *however educated*, but *educated* and *moral* they must prove themselves. It is not, then, strange that the men who are engaged in teaching are regarded by their fellow-countrymen with respect and consideration, and as men of great learning and of high character.

"In order to elevate the social position of the teacher, the government placed them under the immediate protection of the county courts. They made a law that no teacher, once chosen to the office, should be dismissed, except by the county magistrates. This protected the teacher from the *personal prejudice of parents or trustees.*

"The teachers in Prussia are men respected by the whole community, to whom all classes owe the first rudiments of education. In birth, early recollections and associations they are often peasants, but in education and position they are *gentlemen* in every sense of the term, and acknowledged officers in the county government.

"All young men who aspire to the office of teacher in Germany, and who aspire to enter a Normal College, are obliged to submit to an examination, conducted by the professors in presence of the educational counselors from the county court. No young man can enter the examination lists who has not produced certificates of *health* and freedom from all *chronic* complaints, or who has

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a weak voice, or *any* physical defect or infirmity.

"A young man who has just obtained admission to a Normal College, and whose education as a teacher is just begun, is much better educated, *even at the commencement* of his three years' course in college, than almost any teacher in *England* when they consider their education as teachers completed."

We introduce this statement in regard to teaching in Germany for the purpose of showing that the much-abused vocation of the teacher can attain the rank of a *learned profession*, and the name teacher, even in the common schools, may become a title of honor and respectability.

While there are many excellent things in the system above-mentioned—many things worthy of imitation, such as requiring a finished education of all teachers, thus securing their influence and respectability in the community—yet there are very serious hindrances in the way of carrying the system to perfection. Everywhere the lessons of the school-room are weakened and, in a measure, destroyed by degrading national customs, and the inevitable results of a government which, to a certain extent, represses liberty of thought, speech, and political action. But if the educational system of Prussia has been a success, as is manifest from its power, notwithstanding its governmental restrictions, what ought we to make our system, when we have no such hindrances, but, on the other hand, a government that fosters the largest liberty of the individual, one that has made the most munificent provisions for education in the amount of moneys and lands bestowed for this purpose, both by the national and state governments?

Our educational system is immense, embracing, as a field of operation, all the states and territories. The great want of the age is education and professional teachers—male and female. We want better teachers and more of them for all classes of society—for rich and poor, for children and adults. One of the surest signs of the regeneration of society will be the elevation of the art of teaching to the highest rank in the community. Then people shall learn that the greatest benefactors of the race are those engaged in instructing all classes. Nothing is more needed than persons of superior gifts and attainments to devote themselves to the instruction of the less enlightened classes in the great aims of life, in the dignity of their nature, in their rights and duties, in the history, laws and institutions of the country, in the philosophy of their employments, and, especially, in the art of training children, bringing them up in health of body, and in vigor and purity of mind.

Z. G. WILLSON.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

VI.

CONCISE MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

"He might have been conquered" is a proposition, because it contains a subject and a predicate united.

"He" is the subject, because it is subordinate to its paramount attributives "might have been conquered."

"Might have been conquered" is the proposition, because it is composed of attributives united to and superior to their subject "He."

"Conquered" is a self-paramount attributive containing a sub-copula. It is the fundamental verb and idea in

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the predicate. It is in its nature passive. It would be rendered active by the tense verb "have," if not prevented by the voice verb "been." Its sub-copula is modified into a prime copula by the copula of the verb "have."

"Been" is a voice verb, the first modifier of "conquered," containing a sub-copula and preventing "have" from rendering "conquered" active.

"Have" is a tense verb, containing a prime copula modifying the time of "conquered" and its copula into a prime copula. It is the second modifier of "conquered." It is modified by the self-paramount modifier "might."

"Might" is an attributive containing a prime copula. It is the third modifier of "conquered." It is a tense and modal verb, and the highest modifier in the predicate. Combined with "have" and "been," its function is to show the time, and mode and voice of the verb "conquered," implying a condition and putting "conquered" in the pluperfect tense, conditional mode, passive voice. In grammar it is called the potential mode. In this sentence, "He" being the passive subject, [and "been," being withdrawn,] becomes the active subject of "conquered," which becomes thereby active by the modifying power of "have."

A fuller categorical model will be given below, by which the following sentences may be analyzed, omitting questions already answered.

"The letters could have been writing while the bundles were tying up."

"The letters could have been being written while the bundles were being tied up."

"He should have been writing the letters while the clerks were tying up the bundles."

"He could have been writing," may imply a condition or not. It may mean "He was able to be writing." "Il pouvait écrire," or "Il pouvait être à écrire" (not conditional); but "Il aurait pu écrire" is conditional, and the English may be made to mean either of these.

It is well to know how to analyse rigidly every word, clause, and proposition.

OF SOME THINGS TAUGHT IN LOGIC.

Logicians teach us that the indicative, imperative and subjunctive modes of the verb "to be," *to be* is the copula having no attributive property. It is called the copulative verb. It is alleged to be in every verb from which they derive their predicating power. It is also alleged that this copula is removed from the forms of verbs called the infinitive and participle. If this be so how can this same pure copula have an infinitive and participles? How came the infinitive and participles "to be," "being," "been?" If it be a pure copula, and if it be removed nothing will be left. Then how came they? "Be" is the copula, and "being," "been," are participles from which the copula has been removed. The conclusion is, that removing an entire thing leaves a residue. If participles and infinitives have no copula how can the copula have participles?

It would seem to be a logical concession that the verb "to be," in all its forms, is either attributive, like other verbs, or that its participles "being," "been," are copulas, and if "being," "been," be copulas, it follows also that the participles of other verbs have copulas as well. It is not denied that "has been," "had been," are copulas predicating adjectives and clauses following them. In which of these words is the copula? It cannot be in "been," because the copula is not in a participle. Suppose it to be in "has," "had"—they are attributives con-

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taining the copula in them—then they cannot be pure copulas; and what difference can there be, other than in time, in "He was good" and "He had been good?" The true solution consists in recognizing the truth that every verb is both attributive and copulative in every form it may take, including participles and infinitives, and in discarding the fancy of a pure copula, and further recognizing that the participles have a minor copula to predicate minor propositions, to enable the speaker to present propositions in gradation as words are presented in gradation.

OF THE CONDITIONAL MODE AND ITS TENSES: THOSE EXPRESSING CERTAINTY, THOSE EXPRESSING UNCERTAINTY, WITH AND WITHOUT AN OPINION.

"He will sell his horse if he find him." (No opinion of, or of not finding him.)

"He will sell his horse if he should find him." (Intimates doubt of finding.)

"He is at work if he is well." "He was at work if he was well." "He will be at work if he shall be well." (Doubt without an opinion.)

"He will be at work, if he should be well." (Intimates that he may not be well.)

"He would be at work, if he should be well." (Increases the doubt.)

"He would be at work, if he were well." (Implies that he is not well.)

"If he has money enough, he will go to M." (No opinion.)

"If he should have money he will go to M." (Intimates doubt of his having enough.)

"If he should have money, he would go to M." (Increases the doubt.)

"If he had money enough, he would go to M." (Implies that he has not enough.)

"If he had had money, he had gone—would have gone—to M." (Implies that he did not have money.)

"If he should receive his money, he would buy a horse." (Expresses doubt and hope.)

"If he had money, he has bought a horse." (Past tense, expressing uncertainty.)

"If he had money, he would buy a horse." (Implies that he has no money. The condition supposes what is untrue to express the consequences following if the supposition were true; "had" expressing supposititious present time, and "would buy" future time.)

"If he had money, he has bought a horse." "If he has had money, he has bought a horse." "If he had money, he bought a horse." "If he has had money, he bought a horse." (Aorist and present perfect tense, with no opinion.)

"If he has received his money he will buy a horse." (Leaves it uncertain, with no opinion whether he has or has not received his money.

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

A PLEA FOR MORE GENERAL ART-CULTURE.

The narrow idea that art chiefly concerns artists, stands much in the way of a more general appreciation and enjoyment of art. The first step toward the study is supposed to be an outfit of paint and brushes, musical instruments, or some other of the material which art uses. In the culture provided in books, no one thinks it necessary as a preliminary, that we should each first make a book. It requires many tedious years of purely mechanical labor to acquire technical skill in the use of the symbols which art employs to express thought; and this labor is for the many not only impossible, but quite unnecessary. The

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time wasted by those who attempt it and fail, might have been used in obtaining real insight and appreciation that would have been a life-long joy.

The artist conceives thought in a sensuous form, and generally not in other forms; though Michael Angelo, Titan among artists, did go beyond his arts of painting and sculpture, and likewise in verse, the creative power is still confined to the few gifted ones, who make their conceptions immortal through the beauty of the form in which they embody them. But any one of us can by study become so familiar with the symbols of art as to perceive the idea which any work of art expresses. And this constitutes real appreciation of art, to see what the artist meant in his work, and to decide whether it is a worthy ontent.

The one surely safe way to study is to choose the finest example, the *chef-d'œuvre* of its kind, and make it mean to us what it means to the best art-insight that we know of. In this way the power to form a correct judgment of other works will be attained, and the pleasure will more than compensate for the labor bestowed. We may not all soon be able to exhaust Raphael or Beethoven, but form, sound, and color, will gain new significance, and a new world will open for us.

A little waltz has "Spring is Coming" on its title page. The composer is no great genius, but his melodies are found in every family and school room. Beginning with a tender modulation of four single notes, it advances, three or four bars in a melody, which breaks off and comes back to the same four notes, repeating them again a half note higher and higher till it comes out freshly and strongly into the melody which was interrupted, and furnishes it in full confident chords. The next part is a tinkling, happy, careless sort of melody, ending rather suddenly in cold, positive, major chords. Without waiting for the sound to die away, it begins with the four single notes, sounding now, after those positive chords, even more timid and doubtful than at first. The first part then is repeated, except that the close is more confident and joyous than the first close. That is all there is of the little waltz. Children play it, it is technically so simple, and everybody thinks it pretty. But does it not really tell us in musical language that Spring *is* coming, and leave us with the assurance that at last it has come? The doubtful beginning of the four single notes, trying bravely to shine and grow into a melody, interrupted by cold winds, perseveringly trying it all over again, a little higher and higher as it gains confidence that this time cold Winter will not object, is not that the way Spring comes in music? It is not worth while to say more about it, except to ask whether even so much of an "interpretation" does not add to its value and the pleasure of the hearer?

It is not necessary for our full enjoyment of art that we shall know how to make a masterpiece, or even one of those difficult things which make us wish, with Dr. Johnson, that they were not only difficult, but impossible. We may even have the advantage of the artist who sees his conceptions only in the sensuous form which he uses to embody it. We may enjoy his work through two faculties instead of one.

Art galleries are always full enough of people, shewing that the popular instinct is in the right direction. But the things provided for them to look at, and the way in which they look, shews that there is much to be done before we are in any high sense an art-loving people. Music fares better among us; but even here it is discouraging to think of all the teachers and all the

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scholars wasting their time and belittling their souls over trashy music, while the grand and beautiful works of the great masters are known to so few. There are many of Beethoven's pieces simple enough for young beginners, and many more by him and other great composers which would not suffer much essential harm in being simplified. It is a great deal for young people who are growing even to hear great names. They will all the sooner be eager for their inheritance of culture, which descends by no law of family or government, and requires no qualification but love and labor in the heir.

MRS. ELLA S. MORGAN.

ABSUNT, NON DESUNT.

VIONVILLE, AUGUST 18, 1870.

Evil and long has the battle been,
  And the lilies fair of France
Lie trodden beneath the invader's heel,
  And torn by the German lance.

Down drops all silently the sun
  To the gray mist, crimson-barred;
And the bugle-call in the hush rings out
  For the First Dragoons of the Guard.

Evil and long has the battle sped;
  In the thick of the fight rode they;
Do they hear the sound, as the silver notes
  Towards Strasburg die away?

Vain to look on the shot-torn field;
  The dead sleep all around.
Far to the East they rode away—
  Again let the bugle sound!

The tramp of hoofs! Ah, the bold dragoons!
  They shall yet ride free and brave,
All victory-crowned, through the Brandenburg gate,
  In the city they fought to save.

Hark to the hoofs! From the right, from the left!
  And nearer they come, and near;
The brave dragoons! How they spur their steeds,
  As the bugle-call they hear!

And nearer they sound!—Who will come no more
  Of the thousand so brave to start?
We fear to see, yet the ringing hoofs
  Ring fear into hope in the heart.

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And nearer they sweep, till they close into rank,
  And shoulder to shoulder they stand—
Six hundred riderless horses—
  Waiting the word of command!

Weary, and wounded, and bleeding,
  Dusty, and stained with gore,—
Six hundred riderless horses
  Of the First Dragoons!—No more.

Oh hush the sound of the bugle,
  Ere the sun drop the hills below!
Lest more of them come at the summons,
  Where they lie there, breathing slow.

Oh hushed be the silvery bugle—
  One more fills a vacant space!
And blinded and stumbling, another
  Wheels in, and then drops in his place!

Oh hush all the call of the bugle!
  Let the shade of the blessed night
Drop down from the infinite heaven,
  And hide them from the sight!

The pain on the shot-torn war-field,
  And the moan in the quivering air
Were as nought to the empty saddles
  And the suffering that was *not* there.

Oh measureless depth of silence,
  Than sound more painful far,—
Oh sign of a vanished presence,
  How terrible ye are!

The notes that are never sounded!
  The words that we wait to hear!
The palaces and no master!—
  Will the heaven make it clear?

—ANNA C. BRACKETT.

A WEEK IN THE EDINBURGH SCHOOLS.

My apology for presenting the following personal observations, is that it seems to me of very great importance that American teachers should become more familiar with European methods of Instruction. With so much that is unquestionably good in our American ways, we have a European reputation for being prone to believe we have reached the highest excellence in all things. I leave each to judge whether we merit this imputation or not, while I shall unhesitatingly assert that we have much to learn from them in matters of

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education. One does not need to see European schools to know that they produce a completer type of scholarship than we are yet able to do in America; he needs only a casual acquaintance with the European scholars who live among us to make him conscious of this.

I reached Edinburgh in the last days of June, where I found the schools still at their regular work though they were approaching their examinations. I had heard before, and I heard then, that there were no better schools in the British realm than those in Edinburgh, and as I saw I should arrive in London too late to see much of the English schools, I decided to learn what I could of the methods of instruction in the Edinburgh schools.

I had had the fortune to make a traveling acquaintance with one of the professors iu the University while on a little tour in the Highlands, and had received from him quite a number of letters of introduction to teachers in different schools, but I found later that all these were for primary and charity schools, though I had distinctly stated that I wished to see the best methods of instruction. However, through the introductions of friends, I had no difficulty in getting access to any of the schools that I had time to see, and left with a good many letters of introduction that I had hoped to have time to make available. I found the people at Edinburgh very much as I have always found the Boston people, very busy with their own work, but most ready to lay it aside, if they could thereby assist me to some valuable thing. They were extremely glad to hear of our American interests, and altogether willing to let both the faults and excellences of their social schemes be thoroughly examined.

I visited the High School and Academy, the two best schools below the University, a popular private school for boys, a small private school for girls, and a Normal school with its model school. I saw classes in History, Latin, Mathematics, Reading, Grammar, and Geography.

From what I saw and heard, I have no reason to think their teaching of Mathematics is superior to ours. Comparatively few of the pupils are fond of these studies, which of itself is very good evidence that the teaching is not especially excellent. Arithmetic is taught very much as it was when I learned it in a country district school. The pupils were for the most part making their own way, and getting individual help from the teacher only when they got too badly puzzled. There was very little blackboard drill. I saw a class in Analytical Geometry taught by a gentleman who was said to be quite a master mathematician. The class was conducted after the manner of ours twenty-five years ago. The pupils asked questions upon points they did not understand, but were not required to recite very much. The rest of the time was filled in by the teacher in extending the applications of the theorem and deducing additional corollaries. I think I am justified in saying the amount of mathematical knowledge in their schools is less than in ours; at the same time we must remember that very much less time is given to this study. With us it is the chief thing, occupying a far greater part of the pupil's time than any other study, while with them it gets a very subordinate part of the pupil's time, unless he has especial tastes in that direction. Warren Colburn made arithmetic so easy for us, that it is at least questionable whether it does not at present monopolize more time than it deserves—whether the guessing of so many arithmetical riddles gives a mental acumen that fully compensates for the want of those

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thought-data that other studies would provide.

I saw no teaching of science, but this, too, forms a very much smaller part of the school-work than with us, and, I am inclined to think, ranks with the mathematics as inferior in quality to ours. When we come to the highest University teaching, of course, we have very few men who, in breadth of attainment, can rank with their leading men in science—but I am speaking of the schools and not of the Universities, the instruction in which I did not see. The teaching in the other branches that I have mentioned seemed to me very much in advance of ours.

I heard classes in History in three different schools, and in all of them the work was to me surprisingly excellent. It happened that in each case the period under consideration was that preceding and following the union of the two crowns, than which, no time in their history more thoroughly arouses the national feeling and fires the Scottish blood. The teacher occupied most of the time with a rapid conversational lecture, in which he seemed to transfer his pupils into the homes of their ancestors, and into their public assemblies, where they listened to the discussions, and heard the great measures urged by their advocates and thwarted by their opponents, till they felt themselves sharing in the struggles of the time. It was no effort for these pupils to remember what had been said, they had been through a real experience which they could not forget. The teacher sometimes asked questions, but waited only for their eyes to answer and continued his theme. Much knowledge was imparted, and I was sure these pupils would be eager to know more of the people and principles into whose interests they had so heartily entered. Such instruction was laying the basis for a life-long study of history. I was sorry not to see classes in Ancient History, but it was not difficult to conceive how these subjects could be taught with the same interest by one who was in an equal degree master of his theme—by one who had made Greece and Rome his native atmosphere of thought.

The teaching in Geography was perhaps even more remarkable than that in history. This, too, was in the style of a conversational lecture. There were large maps hanging on the wall, and the teacher traced with a pointer the route over which he was taking his pupils. His perfect acquaintance with his subject and the familiarity with which he spoke made it seem like an open wagon-drive through the country, under the escort of an intelligent resident. The surface of the country, its scenery, its climate and skies were distinctly observed; its soil and productions, the occupations of the people and the dependence of these upon the natural features of the country; the characteristics of the inhabitants and the causes that determine the peculiar phases of their civilization; their architecture and the historic associations of their country. All this came like a series of panoramic views, and the pupils listened as they would to the lively stories of a friend who had just returned from foreign travel. They had no trouble in remembering the names, since they had so vivid an impression of what the names signified—just as one remembers the name of an interesting stranger with whom he has familiarly conversed. Taught in this way, pupils not only learn geography more readily, but retain it far better, and, once brought into these personal relations with the people, they catch with eagerness everything that affects their social condition or individual life. Here, again, the pupils were questioned but little. The teacher

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seemed to think it was of more importance to give them knowledge than to take time to hear them repeat what they already knew. I saw no marking, though, upon inquiring of different teachers, I found they all did more or less of it, and that the pupils were generally marked two or three times a week, but the progress is tested and the promotions determined mainly by written examinations. This saving of time in class-work constitutes one of the leading distinctions between their teaching and ours. With them almost the entire hour is used in imparting instruction, which is given in the most condensed form and in the most lively manner. Our method of recitation gives the pupil the very positive advantage of critical practice in the adequate expression of his thought, and it occurred to me that the mean between their methods and ours would probably give better results than either. In respect to our system of marking, whatever advantages may be urged in its favor, it is certainly open to very positive and unavoidable objections on the part of both the teacher and the scholar. It necessarily imposes upon the teacher a double train of thought. He must not only carefully discern what the pupil does know and does not know, but also determine the accurate ratio between these quantities; in addition to this, the fear of losing from memory some of the terms of this ratio forces him into a narrow and restrained sphere of thought during the pupil's entire recitation, so that the inspiration he might have drawn from the pupil's presentation of the theme is almost wholly lost. Besides, in view of accurate marking, he is compelled to avoid these leading questions, which are perhaps the most valuable in developing the thinking powers of the pupil; that is, the teacher for the most part loses his character of instructor, and becomes little more than a recorder of what the pupil has gleaned from the few pages assigned him for a lesson. On the part of the pupil this system of marking is almost sure to induce the pernicious habit of preparing the lesson for the day's recitation, and feeling but little responsibility for its guardianship after the one or two days in which it is likely to be called up. This method of study inclines the faithful pupil to give too much time to comparatively unimportant details, the main value of which consists in their ability to furnish data for broader truths, and which soon pass from memory, unless he is able to classify them and embrace them with general principles.

The test of a pupil's acquisition is not the number of sentences he can repeat, but the thought-data he retains, and the increased fertility or capability of his thought power, and this it seems to me is far more accurately determined by written examinations occurring at regular intervals, than by daily oral recitations.

The teaching of Latin is very much wider than ours. It did not seem to me the teacher expected more than one-fifth of his questions to be answered, and yet he hurled them out like grape-shot from a revolver. Under such a fire, no boy was likely to go to sleep, and, in such a scattering of missiles some were sure to take effect. To the study of the language, the history, thought and general civilization of the people were closely linked. In the study of Latin, they were not simply learning the grammar of the language and the literature of a great nation, but the relation of this language to other languages, the habits of the people who spoke it, the thought they developed, and the art they produced. And, indeed, all their teaching was less isolated and abstract than ours

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each thing is shown in its relation to other things.

Their teaching of reading is very unlike ours—there is no effort at oratorical effect; vocal gymnastics are left wholly out of account. The only aim seems to be to give distinct utterance to the words of the printed page. Along with this, there is a sort of artistic effect, a measured, musical cadence, which you observe in the reading of every educated Englishman and Scotchman, but as this is so universal, no child has to make an effort to learn it. In many cases we should call the reading decidedly bad, since the articulation is very much less distinct than ours; this you also observe in their public speaking and conversation. But the reading lesson is made most valuable in other ways. The reading books, like ours, contain collections of fine historic events, descriptions of rare scenes, peculiar social habits, etc.; things concerning which it is easy to awaken an interest, and not the style of the reading so much as the piece itself becomes the subject of the lesson. The pupils are expected not only to make themselves familiar with the thought contained in the piece, but also to look up points of history or references to other things not fully explained there. Hence it becomes a lesson in Literature, History, or Biography, as the case may be. In these lessons there was a good deal of questioning and answering. The pupils had the privilege of communicating any collateral knowledge they could to the matter in hand, and there naturally arose a good deal of strife, as here was a place where a boy's general knowledge might be turned to account. The best result of such lessons as these is to give pupils critical habits in reading, and I am of opinion that too much importance cannot be placed upon them in this respect. I saw one little class that had not then finished their first year in school. They were reading a little story in Natural History, and I was astonished to see how much these children, who were just learning to read, knew of the habits of animals. Each one seemed eager to add something to the general knowledge of the class, and in reading he seemed only to tell the story from the book, so eager was he to give to his account the fullest expression. One lost altogether the idea of its being a reading lesson, so thoroughly did it seem a Natural History lesson. After the lesson was over I inquired of the teacher how it was that these children knew so much. He told me he had gone over the lesson with them the day before, explaining it and telling them a good deal of the animals mentioned there, and that they were always encouraged to get all the additional knowledge they could from reading or questioning their friends, and after coming to school they had studied the lesson in a room where there was a governess of whom they were permitted to ask any questions they chose, and, as I saw from the frequent use of the pliant switch, they were required to avail themselves of these opportunities. The teacher of this class was a very learned young man—one who, from the extent and breadth of his knowledge, would be quite a marvel among us. And it is hardly fair to speak of the greater excellence of their methods of teaching, without admitting that this is largely due to their more learned teachers. We have few learned men, and if we had them we could not afford in our ordinary schools to pay them the price that a thinking brain can command in this country for its service.

In this country we have spread a broad table for the blind, the weak, and the lame, who wander in the streets; it is not strange that we cannot at once offer them choice meats and wines. We

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have *much* instruction with but little of the first quality.

Our children in the lower grades are taught largely by teachers who know but little beyond what they are required to teach. These teachers cannot convert an ordinary reading lesson into a lesson in Natural History, Literature, or Geography, and the consequence is, the pupils are drilled in a narrow routine, when they should be breathing a wide, free atmosphere of general knowledge. I have spoken with the admiration and enthusiasm I feel for these European methods of instruction, and yet I can clearly see that it would be difficult, and perhaps dangerous, to attempt to engraft them into our indigenous school system. The circumstances of our society and the necessities of our life are so different that it is doubtless wiser to cultivate our native growth than to attempt to supplant it by an unacclimatized, foreign growth; but this should not prevent our studying their methods of culture and fertilization, and from thence discovering the general laws that determine the best school; we may thereby be able to produce a soil and climate that will support all the best growths of modern times from whatever land they come.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

Editors' Department.

NATIONAL AID FOR SCHOOLS.

Mr. Burchard's bill to encourage and aid the establishment of free schools throughout the United States, introduced in the House of Representatives on the 20th of February last, provides,

First: That the net proceeds arising from the sale, entry, location, or other disposition of the public lands of the United States, are hereby set apart and annually appropriated for the maintenance of common schools for the free education of all the children in the United States of suitable school-age, which proceeds shall be distributed to each State and Territory, and to the District of Columbia, in proportion to its respective population as ascertained by the census last preceding such distribution.

Second: That the Secretary of the Treasury shall cause an account to be taken after the close of each fiscal year of all receipts arising from all expenditures incurred in the disposition of public lands, and on or before the first day of December of each year certify to the Secretary of the Interior the amount of the net cash proceeds.

Third: That the Commissioner of Education shall apportion the amount so certified, upon the basis of population, to each Territory and to the District of Columbia, and to each State wherein provision is made by law for the free education of all children between the ages of six and fifteen years, and certify the same to the Secretary of the Treasury and to the Superintendent of Public Instruction of each State and Territory the amount so apportioned to such State or Territory.

Fourth: That the Superintendent of Public Instruction of each State and Territory, or such other officer as shall, by the laws of such State or Territory, be required so to do, shall immediately, upon the receipt of such certificate, proceed to apportion the amount so certified to his State or Territory to the several districts therein which shall have maintained for at least six months during the preceding year a free school for all the children of such district between the ages of six and fifteen years, which apportionment shall be upon the basis of the population of such district, and the amount so apportioned shall be solely applied in payment of teachers' wages.

Fifth: That in case any State or Territory shall misapply, or allow to be misapplied, squandered, or in any manner appropriated or used other than for the purposes herein required, the funds, or any part thereof, received under the provisions of this act, or shall fail to report, as herein provided, through its proper officers the disposition thereof, such State or Territory shall forfeit its right to any subsequent apportionment by virtue hereof, until the full amount so misapplied, lost, or misappropri-

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ated, shall have been replaced by such State or Territory and applied as herein required, and until such report shall have been made.

The bill further provides for the manner and time of payment and the returns to be made.

Although no action was had on this bill during the last session of Congress, it doubtless will be offered again during the present session, and is, therefore, a proper subject for discussion.

We have hitherto urged that the true policy of the National Government is simply to *encourage* education by all legitimate means, and not to seek to guide, control, or direct it in the several States already providing therefor. In so far, then, as devoting the proceeds of sales of public lands for school purposes, as contemplated, is concerned, this bill has our approval; but we question the practicability, and therefore the advisability of the manner of distribution. Admitting that all of the school districts of, for example, Missouri, will be entitled to the benefits accruing, should the bill become law, we beg to inquire the length of time it will take the State Superintendent to make the apportionments for eight thousand school districts, and, also, what the additional expense of *distribution* will be? Will there be a sufficient revenue to pay the expenses? We ask his question in view of the startling report made by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue in relation to the assessment and collection of the Income Tax. We can plainly see that an innumerable army of clerks, with endless blanks, records, reports, forms, and other requisites, will be needed to opperate its vast machinery.

But there is one provision in the bill that destroys whatever else of good there may be in it. It provides that only such districts as shall have maintained a free school for *at least six months* shall receive the benefits arising under the bill. It is not the public schools which have the means for a session of *six* months that most need the aid of the Government, but the districts which have hard work to raise enough money to continue a school *two* and *three* months; in sparsely settled regions where land is worth only from five to ten dollars an acre, and where poverty is so severely felt that every possible aid and inducement must be afforded in order to give the children any knowledge of books whatever. *Six months!* About one-tenth of the eight thousand schools in Missouri would participate in the fund. Legislation in favor of the fortunate few to the direct detriment of the unfortunate many is too prevalent in State and Nation. The Legislature of Missouri is seeking to limit the amount of taxation for school purposes to one-half of one per cent. It is required under the present law that a sub-district, in order to participate in the State school fund, shall have a school for at least *three months. A tax of one-half of one per cent. will continue the schools for that length of time in less than three thousand sub-districts,* thereby depriving a large majority of the benefits of the public fund, and we offer the statistics of the Report of the State Superintendent as proof positive of the correctness of our statement. Shall we help those who have little need of our help, or give to those who are really needy?

We suggest that whenever it shall appear to the general government that there is an amount of money on hand that will justify a distribution, whether it be every year, or once in five or ten years, that it be apportioned to the States and Territories which have met the requirements of the law, to become a permanent fund for the support of public schools in such State or Territory; and in the event of neglect on the part of a State to provide for the

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support of public schools, the amount received, together with the accrued interest thereon, to be refunded to the General Government.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY.

Its History.—An act of the Legislature of Missouri, approved February 22d, 1853, incorporated an institution of learning, with full university powers, to be established in the city of St. Louis. This date of the approval caused the new institution to take the name *Washington* University.

Among the most active promoters of the enterprise was the Rev. Dr. Wm. G. Eliot, to whom St. Louis owes so much in the matter of the establishing its admirable system of public free schools; and the close connection that has always existed between the University and the public schools is very largely due to the fact that one and the same man had so large a part in the creation of both.

During all its earlier years the new University had the usual struggles with poverty and obscurity. There were no permanent funds, but the lack was made good by the generosity of the wealthy and spirited business men of St. Louis. We might name those who have given from $10,000 to $100,000 a-piece. In fact, it is one of the good and noteworthy peculiarities of St. Louis, that among its merchants, manufacturers, and capitalists, are found such lovers of culture and such generous givers as Wayman Crow, George Partridge, James Smith, James H. Lucas, Hudson E. Bridge, Thomas Allen, and the brothers Collier.

But, thanks to the active zeal of the President of the Board of Directors and to the gifts of friends in St. Louis and Boston, the University has passed out of the perils of poverty, and is now comfortably and substantially endowed with lands, buildings and funds productively invested.

Its Organization.—Washington University intends to afford opportunity for complete preparation for every walk of life, whether literary, professional, scientific, or practical. To carry out this purpose, it has, in actual operation, a school of law, a school of medicine, a school of technology, a college on the usual model of American colleges, and a preparatory school or academy. These several departments and school are well known and of excellent reputation. But there are some of them—the school of technology or applied science—which we wish to speak of with somewhat of detail.

The School of Technology.—St. Louis, is already conspicuous as a centre of those industries that demand and use the best trained technical skill of the chemist, the smelter, and metallurgist, the mineralogist, geologist, and mining engineer, the designer and builder of heavy and complex machinery, and the civil engineer. Before many years, St. Louis and its neighborhood will have become "the black country" of all the Mississippi Valley. It lacks but little of being that even now. Close by it lie vast beds of coal, mountains of iron, lead, and zinc ores inexhaustible; copper without end, fire-clay and porcelain-clay for a continent, besides granites, marbles, sandstones, lime-stones, and glass sand beyond all estimate or possibility of estimate. Rivers and railways already transport these raw materials to the city for reduction, in quantities whose money-measure is reckoned in millions of dollars each year. Still, all that now is and is done, is but a grain of mustard seed by the side of what will be doing ten years from now. Capitalists have nearly finished organizing a heavy company for smelting the gold, silver, copper and lead ores of Colorado and Montana; and before many months the best skill of Freiburg, Swansea, and the

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United States will be working together at the reduction of these obstinate and refractory but rich ores from the Rocky Mountains.

St. Louis, then, is marked out by nature and by man's industries as the fit place for the great interior school of training in the applied sciences. And such a school Washington University has founded and is vigorously building up. At the opening of the next college year, (in September, 1871,) the new building for the scientific school will be brought into use—a building costing $50,000, and planned after the best experience of the best institutions in America and Europe. Its laboratories of chemistry and physics will be every way the equals of any in the world, in both arrangement and equipment. The whole of the coming summer will be used by one of the professors in selecting and buying the best instruments, apparatus, and models in engineering, architecture, and machinery that can be found or made. The United States Coast Survey has adopted the University as one of its permanent astronomical stations, and a meridian circle (valued at $5,000) will be set up for use this season. It is nearly certain, too, that an astronomical clock for use with the circle, will be given by a gentleman of this city.

The newly endowed chair of mining and metallurgy will be filled this summer with the best man that can be found for the place, and instruction in what is so inviting as a profession, so important for the developement of the resources of Missouri, will begin in full strength, with a full equipment, at the opening of the session in Septmber.

We must not neglect to state that the courses in civil and mechanical engineering and in analytic chemistry have been in vigorous activity for several years, and the work done has been excellent. It deserves to be specially noted that in the teaching of engineering statics—bridge-building and the like—free and constant use is made of those "graphical" methods of determining the strains on each piece in the bridge or roof, which have lately been discovered by English engineers, but which are still *comparatively* little known outside of England. Much more might be said of the general and special merits of this St. Louis school of technology.

The Late Endorsements.—On the 2nd day of March, 1871, Thomas Allen, Esq., President of the Iron Mountain Railroad, gave a fund of nearly $50,000, the interest whereof shall go to the support of the chair of mining and metallurgy; and only a few days later, Hon. Hudson E. Bridge, President of the Missouri Pacific Railroad, gave $15,000 towards the cost of the building for the scientific school; $15,000 towards the cost of the furniture and apparatus for the same; and $100,000 for endowment of the chancellorship of the University. These two great gifts have placed Washington University on solid ground so far as money matters are concerned.

We are sorry that, for want of space, the continuation of our review of Allen's *Manual Latin Grammar* will have to be postponed till the next number. A large amount of doferred educational intelligence will also be presented at that time. We would call special attention to Mr. Vickroy's *Reply* to Mr. Summers, as it involves points of much interest, and furnishes one more proof of how intimately a critic must know a work before he can be sure of criticizing it fairly. We bespeak for it a careful reading.

Wm. W. Phelps has given 6,000 volumes to Yale College, which were once a part of Von Mohl's famous library at Heidelberg.

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Reviews and Notices.

CATALOGUE, CLASSIFIED AND ALPHABETICAL, OF THE BOOKS OF THE ST. LOUIS PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARY; including, also, the Collections of the ST. LOUIS ACADEMY OF SCIENCE and ST. LOUIS LAW SCHOOL. Prepared under the direction of the Board of Managers, by JNO. JAY BAILEY, Librarian, 1870.

A Library without a Catalogue is in about as sorry a plight as a mercantile house without a ledger. For as, in the latter establishment, it is only by the aid of his ledger that a merchant can determine how his accounts stand, what are his assets and his liabilities, what is the standing of each of his customers, and, generally, all that it is necessary for him to have constant knowledge of for the well conducting of his business, so in the former case, the librarian can only, through the medium of a carefully prepared catalogue, answer the many questions that are asked daily in relation to the contents and character of the library—its standing in reference to this or that science—as well as determine what books or classes of books are necessary to be bought in order to supply deficiencies; without such a catalogue, it is next to impossible for him to have a systematic knowledge of his library and wisely conduct its affairs. A merchant's ledger is, however, a book, he best form for which has long been determined and universally adopted; while it is still a matter of controversy among bibliographers what is the best form for a catalogue of a library. This becomes surprising when one consider how many philosophers, on the one hand, and professional librarians, on the other, have studied and experimented in this direction for ages past. The difficulty has, perhaps, been chiefly this: that the philosophers have ignored too much in their schemes the practical workings of a library system, while the librarians, on their side, have equally disregarded the philosophical relations to each other of the various sciences and the books which treat upon them. The Catalogue which forms the subject of this review professes to harmonize the divergent systems of philosophers and librarians, and give a key to the library at once scientific and practical. If it accomplishes what it professes to do—if it supplies a basis for the classification of books and for the proper order of a catalogue of them—it deserves o be regarded in the light of a solution of the great nd long-standing problem that has vexed the important domain of bibliography. We have not the space here to point out and discuss even the most notable features that characterize the scheme of classification adopted for this Catalogue, but must refer our readers to the able and exhaustive essay on Classification, in the Catalogue itself, written by Mr. Wm. T. Harris, the Editor of the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, who has brought to bear upon the arrangement of this scheme at once a profound philosophical insight, and a stern appreciation of the practical.

The two main questions asked by frequenters of libraries are these: *first*, "Have you a certain work?" or, "the works of a certain author?" and, *secondly*, "What works have you treating upon a certain subject?" The first question is answered by an alphabetical catalogue, the second by a catalogue of subjects. To combine the alphabetical with the subject catalogue, so as to answer both questions, has long been the aim of librarians. That the Catalogue of our Public School Library does answer both, by a system which, while it is thorougly philosophical or scientific, yet is made so plain that the most unphilosophical searcher after information may practically master it in a few minutes, is high evidence of its excellence, and entitles it to, at least, the careful study of bibliographers. This catalogue is two-fold; it has an alphabetical arrangement under authors, when known, under the first word in the title of the book when no author is given. But the student, or even the reader for recreation, if he desires a book of a particular kind, or on a given topic, has only to open the book at the synoptical table of the scheme of classification, where he will find the general Heads of SCIENCE, ART, HISTORY. Grouped under the first he finds the Classes *Philosophy*, *Theology*, *Jurisprudence*, *Politics*, *Social Science*, *Philology*, *Mathematics*, *Physics*, *Natural History*, *Medicine*, *Useful Arts*, Under the second he finds *Fine Arts*, *Poetry*, *Prose Fiction*, *Literary and Miscellany*. Under the third, *Geography and Travels*, *Civil History*, *Biography*. Ander an APPENDIX, which follows, he finds *Cyclopædias and Periodicals*. An intelligent child could hardly go astray in determining under what class would fall the book or books he wants, and then, by following down in their order, the sub-divisions of these classes, he will ascertain the page of the catalogue whereon to find collected together the titles of all the books

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whose character or subject determines the object of his search. Nothing could be much simpler, plainer, or more practical; at the same time, the scheme, based upon the deep and thorough philosophical division of the sciences, propounded by Lord BACON, must commend itself to the abstruse philosophical student of human intellectual attainments, with their ramifications and mutual dependencies, as here exhibited in their normal development. While the idiosyncracies of librarians, or the peculiar characteristics of libraries, may suggest departures from the minor details of the scheme here set forth, we believe its general features are destined to become widely adopted as indicating the true form for a catalogue of books.

The mechanical execution of the Catalogue under review, its typographical appearance, neat binding, and all that, reflect great credit upon all parties concerned in its preparation.

Prof. Gray's School and Field Book of Botany comes to us. We are already familiar with it in our schools. It meets a want that was felt by teachers in city schools who were using the Lessons and Manual. The difficulty of getting field and forest specimens renders classes in the city quite dependent upon garden vegetation, and hence it is of the first importance to have a text-book that recognizes the "sports of plants under the influence of civilization, attempts to classify them on the basis of their primitive relationship.

It is scarcely necessary to speak of the manner in which Prof. Gray presents his theme, which has won for him absolute dominion in the American school-room. His "How Plants Grow" is almost a fairy book in the hands of intelligent children of twelve, and his Lessons, though coming in rather more impersonal and dignified language, still conduct the pupil into the familiar home circle of plant life, where he *feels* a clear kinship to this first stage of animated earth, than science can yet prove with her clumsy logic. One of our school girls said, after going through with these lessons, "I now fear to tread on a blade of grass lest I shall hear it shriek with pain." The School and Field Book of Botany consists of the Lessons bound with the Field, Forest, and Garden Botany, which is a classification and analysis of the plants, both wild and cultivated, east of the Mississippi. For the highest authority respecting plants west of the Mississippi, it is said, we have to refer to our distinguished citizen, Dr. Engelman.

Prof. Gray's books are not model books to recite from, inasmuch as they give a comprehension of the theme too broad and complete to be narrowed into definitions.

Education at Home and Abroad.

ST. LOUIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Association convened at the High School, on Saturday, the 11th ult.

Mr. Harris, Superintendent, spoke of the recent addition of a large stock of pedagogical works to the Public Library. These were from Germany, and contained the most scientific treatises extant on the subject. He reminded the teachers that all of their number, whether members of the library or not, had free access to the reading-room and to the reference library. In this connection, he also spoke of the importance of recreation for teachers. Their occupation demanded of them a severe cramping of all their energies into one channel during the hours of labor in school; they were obliged to deal with childishness, and to train, by constant effort, the pupils under their charge into a use of reason and self-control and a mastery over their caprices and humors. This requires of the teacher a perpetual tension, a strain in one direction, which has the tendency to prematurely dry up the buoyancy and elasticity of the teacher and induce a stiff pedantry of manner and habit. This was what gave the word "pedagogue" its odious meaning. Every employment had its dangers in this respect. The merchant, for instance, too much absorbed by his counting-house, lost his sentimental nature and became one of those fossils painted by Dickens in "Dombey & Son." The one-sided physical development of the blacksmith and hod-carrier had its counterparts in the moral world.

The question how a teacher should relax and thus retain the balance of her social, mental, and moral dispositions, was to be answered in part thus: the teacher can find one of the most potent restoratives in the great works of literature. Shakspeare and Goethe, Dante and Homer, take us up from the toil of the day into the region where the great world is transfigured, and in their atmosphere we bathe and renew our youthful all-sidedness. The study of the Norse Mythology, of the Magic Tales of the Round Table, and the Peers of Charlemagne,

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have the effect of specifics against the malady here spoken of. Then, again, these studies should be united with a little severe study every day of some book which is far too difficult to be easily read. Perpetual growth is essential to the good teacher —and what opportunities there are in the West for such men and women! The whole country around us is organizing and constructing its institutions and demands organizers and constructive geniuses. Directive power is the one thing in this world never at a discount. The whole West hungers and thirsts for men and women of directive talent to ascend into positions of power and influence.

Teachers who continually grow will find that they need not rove to seek promotion, the higher places will come to them and beg acceptance of them. Directive power consists in realized intelligence, and the way is open to all who would arrive at its possession.

Dr. Christine, of the Intermediate School, read an interesting paper on the life of Pestalozzi. He treated of the early life, the trials and the ultimate success of this great man as an inventor of new methods of teaching.

"Pestalozzi was born in Zurich, in Switzerland, in 1746. His father died and left him very poor. Young Pestalozzi was educated by his mother—her devotion and self-sacrifice for the sake of her children, early developed in this boy that love and veneration for family life which distinguishes him so favorably from his countryman Rousseau.

"In the Primary School he learned reading, spelling, writing, and cyphering, all by rote, and he made so little progress during his first school years that his teacher predicted that he would never make a useful man. He was unselfish and unsuspecting, and this, in connection with his extreme awkwardness, made him the butt of the jests and tricks of his companions, and gained him the nickname of 'Foolish Harry.'

"At the age of sixteen Pestalozzi entered the college in Zurich. There he was placed under learned teachers. As soon as he finished his primary course he began the study of theology, believing that in the ministry he would find the best and earliest opportunity for assisting the poor and needy. He soon found, however, that as a preacher he could do but little for them, and he exchanged theology for law. His friends advised him not to enter the field of politics. He saw that a permanent improvement of the condition of the poor people in rural districts could be effected only by giving them habits of industry and economy, and imparting to them knowledge. To fit himself for this work he went to an eminent farmer in the Canton of Berne and worked as a farm-laborer for a year at all kinds of field labor.

"He purchased a farm and made preparations to establish a school for the poor, to carry out his long-cherished views in regard to true education, but his utter inability to manage financial affairs caused the ruin of this scheme. After six years of labor and vexation, he was saved from disgrace only by sacrificing a large part of his wife's fortune. These great misfortunes did not deter him from proceeding with his life-work. At the very time of his greatest need he made his house a home for poor orphans and beggar children to the number of fifty. For eighteen years he labored in poverty—so poor that his family had scarcely the bare necessaries of life. Pestalozzi said: 'Frequently, when my poor neighbors were able to sit down to a warm dinner, I had nothing to share with my wife and child but a piece of dry bread, which we ate almost in despair.' He was avoided by his former acquaintances, who considered him a fit subject for a lunatic asylum.

"In 1781, he wrote his book of Aphoressus, containing the key to his pedagogical labors. This was followed by *Leonhardt and Gertrude.* This book excited great interest, it was translated into nearly every modern language, and he became famous. He was offered a home in the house of a rich patrician. Count Zanzendorf tried to induce him to go to Vienna. The Grand Duke Leopold was about to make him Minister of Education in Tuscany when he was elected to the throne of Germany.

"For a time, Pestalozzi edited a paper in Zurich, in which he discussed the necessity of a change in pedagogy and in politics that refer to education.

"In 1792, he traveled in Germany and formed the acquaintance of Basedou, Goethe, and others eminent for their philanthropy and learning.

"In 1798, the minor cantons of Switzerland were almost destroyed, and hundreds of children were left orphans.

"An asylum was established for these children and Pestalozzi was appointed to take charge of it. Here he found an opportunity to test his theory of education by actual trial, and he entered on his labors with great zeal.

"Among these children he began the great practical work of his life. He was to them, father, mother, servant, and teacher. Every hour of the day and every energy of his soul was devoted to them. He taught them all day and watched their slumbers at night, and thus won their affection, conquered their bad habits, and enlightened their minds. He afterwards taught a Normal School at Iverdun. Here he entered a new world. Here he had an opportunity to teach his favorite theories to those who would put them into practice. This school attracted the attention of all Europe. Youths flocked to it from Germany, France, and England. Fichte, the German philosopher, called Pestalozzi the 'harbinger of the regeneration of mankind.'

"He published a complete edition of his works in fifteen volumes, and on his seventy-first birth-day he bequeathed 50,000 francs for the education of girls and boys who wish to become teachers. He closed his eventful and useful life in 1829, being eighty-one years of age. The reforms by which he immortalized himself will live forever as a blessing to mankind."

A Teachers' Institute for St. Louis county will be held at the Polytechnic Building, corner of Seventh and Chestnut streets, on the 6th and 7th of April. Our efficient Superintendent, Mr. Loring, considers attendance at the Institute an essential characteristic of a good teacher, and we trust there will be a general response to his call.

A bill proposing the establishment of a State Normal School has been introduced in the Rhode Island Legislature. The proposition is warmly supported by the Providence *Journal.*

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Reply.*

There is, perhaps, no subject in which the public has a greater interest than in the text-books to be used in the schools. The course pursued by many of our educational journals augurs well; for as soon as books are dealt with according to their merits, without fear or favor, publishers and authors will be more careful in regard to the works presented to the public. But the ends aimed at by educational journals are sometimes defeated by incompetent reviewers, who intrude their one-sided views upon the public in criticisms not worthy to be so called. You, however, have checked any tendency to unfairness by allowing authors to reply to reviews of their books. Although a book of which I am the author receives a lengthy review in your columns, allow me to thank you for your determination that "books shall be dealt with according to their suitability for teaching purposes."

The book reviewed consists of two parts, Introductory Exercises (36 pages), and the Treatise proper (228 pages).

The Introductory Exercises are what they profess to be—*objective* rather than *formal*—and are designed for beginners. This being the case, the statements (definitions they cannot strictly be called) are designed to present the subject in as objective a form as possible, thus calling into exercise the preceptive faculties rather than the thought powers of the mind. Hence the statements are generally based upon prominent features, that the pupil may grasp the facts in this concrete form. The reviewer has failed to perceive this difference, and hence has mixed the statements with the definitions proper, without as much as intimating that he has done so. Is this noticing "*things in the order in which they occur in the book, regardless of the nature of the subject?*" Instead of doing as he promises, the following is the order in which his defects are given: 1st. Page 184; 2d. pp. xvi and 17—24 pages apart; 3d. p. xvii; 4th. pp. xx, 33, 104, etc.; 5th. p. 73; 6th. p. xxi; 7th. p. 98; 8th. p. 61; 9th. p. xxii; 10th and 11th. p. 104; 12th. p. xxiv. This is sufficient to show that the reviewer says one thing and does another.

To enable your readers to compare, I shall use the reviewers' numbers in my reply.

1st defect. Elipses and equivalents. An explanation of the processes of contraction and abridgement is certainly not what the critic says it s. Does he not say that the "treatment of conjunctive pronouns is superior," and that my method j' disposes of the compound relative naturally, and requires no *equivalent* in parsing?"

2nd defect. The reviewer omits part of the definition contained in § 31, and then calls it "*awkward.*"

3d defect. Where is this matter repeated? A foot-note should be appended.

4th defect. Infinitives and participles are called *participials* (§ 227). The following classification shows wherein the parts of the verb agree or differ:

I.	II.	III.	IV.
The Verb.	I. Finite Verb.	1. Mode. 2. Tense. 3. Agreement.	1. Voice. 2. Form. 3. Condit'n.
	II. Participials.	1. Infinitives. 2. Participles.	

The third column shows wherein the parts differ, and the fourth wherein they are alike. The participials retain their assertive character, and hence are verbs; as, *I saw John* FALL; *for me* TO LIVE *is Christ*, in which *fall* and *live* assert *acts* of the objects denoted by *John* and *me*.

5th defect. Transitive verbs and causative use. In the sentence, *John builds a house*, does not the word *house* denote the result of the act expressed by the verb *builds*, and in the sentence *John teaches Henry*, does not the verb *teach* express an act or state produced in the object denoted by the word *Henry?* There is a marked difference between producing a thing that had no prior existence, and causing an act or state in an object already existing. This distinction is marked by a change of vowel in the root, which shows its age. Such words as *raise, fell, set, lay*, are *causative*, while *rise, fall, sit, and lie*, have an *immediate* use.

6th defect. "The author gives voice, mode and tense as the ONLY properties of the verb dependent on relation." I nowhere say so. On page xxi the question is asked: What properties of the verb depend upon relation? Ans. Three; voice, mode and tense. *Relation is a very extensive category.* Crosby (Greek Grammar, p. 169, § 164) says: "*Voice* shows how the action of a verb is related to its subject; *tense*, how it is related to time; and *mode*, how it is related to the mind of the speaker." Why did the reviewer insert the word ONLY?

7th defect. Can an act or state be regarded in any other way than as a fact or a question, as something existing only in thought, or as something willed by the speaker? In the sentences, *I heard him* SING, *I saw her* PLAYING, do not *sing* and *playing* assert acts regarded as facts? This is the normal condition of the verb. Its essential trait is to assert something of an object viewed as a power.

8th defect. Chalk *is* white. *Is* asserts that the quality *white* (the attribute) inheres in the object in denoted by the word *chalk*. Does it not? In the sentence, *John* LOVES, *loves* both asserts and *expresses* the attribute. A copulative verb asserts an *attribute* which is EXPRESSED by some *other* word.

9th defect. The definition of *tense* shall be improved.

10th defect. "The author denominates those verbs strong," etc. *Denominates* means to give a name to. Every scholar, perhaps not every critic, knows that the terms *strong* and *weak* are in common use.

11th defect. "The author divides STRONG verbs into eleven classes." *Not so. The verbs in cur-*

* A TREATISE ON THE GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, by T. R. VICKROY, A.M., President of Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pa. Reviewed by EWING SUMMERS in THE WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW for January, 1871.

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rent use are so divided, as the following schedule shows: (Pp. 105–110.)

	Class.	
Strong.	1.	Distinct forms for each part.
	2.	Present used for past participle.
	3.	Preterite and past participle alike.
Mixed.	4.	Strong and weak pret. and p. p.
	5.	Weak pret. and strong p. p.
	6.	Weak pret. and strong and weak p.p.
Weak.	7.	Change root and suffix *d* or *t*.
	8.	Suffix the syllable *ed*.
	9.	Suffix *d*, *t*, or *ed*.
	10.	Redundant.
	11.	Defective.

He previously said: "In the conjugation of the verb the author is very particular, and philosophically correct in each particular." The putting of similar forms together, so that they may be learned and remembered, will certainly be appreciated by teachers aiming at imparting definite knowledge.

12th, 13th and 14th defect. From Introductory Exercises.

15th defect. Each, every and *all* do limit, inasmuch as they show whether a noun denotes objects taken separately, individually, or collectively. (See § 133.3.)

15th defect. "He would call *more holy* [*Anglice*, holier,] an adjective." Fowler says: "*More, less, most* or *least* prefixed to an adjective forms with it virtually a compound adjective." I am not bound to answer impertinent questions.

17th defect. "In the sentence, *He is naturally a good man.* What is *naturally?*" An adverb, of course. Does it not denote manner? It shows, perhaps, *respect wherein*, but naming the category would be making a *sub-class!* (See 57th defect.)

18th defect. "The book is on the table." *On* shows the relation of the object *book* to the object *table.* Prepositions *do* NOT *show relations between words.*

20th defect. The spoken language is the basis of the written language, and £, $, represent the spoken words *pound* and *dollar*, which are nouns.

21st defect. I nowhere say that material nouns represent *special* wholes. The six classes are coördinate.

22nd defect. "Participial nouns are something else." I do not think so. They are *abnormal* verbal nouns. The definition shall be improved.

23rd defect. Who says that any English noun has an objective form differing from the nominative? *Pronouns* have. By the process of *phonetic decay* our nouns lost their case endings, and by *dialectic regeneration* our possessive case has been formed. The pronoun *its* was not in use when the St. James version of the Bible was made. It is a modern growth, rarely used by *Shakspere* and avoided by *Milton.*

24th defect. The term *paradigm* expresses what is sometimes meant by the term *Conjugation.* Why call two things by the same name when we have names for each. The same folly is generally committed in regard to the word *object.* An object is an object; a word used to denote an object in relation to an act, &c., is properly called a *complement.*

25th and 26th defects. These defects are some of the gods I brought with me from beyond the flood. I shall put them away, but in so doing I shall, perhaps, have to make some *sub-divisions!* (See 37th defect.) "*She sang a great deal.*" *Deal* is provided for in Lesson xxii, §§ 191-192.

27th defect. A transgression of the 9th commandment. I nowhere call *a, any, all* and *every* "*distributive adjectives.*" (See § 133.) *A* is the indefinite article, while *all, any, each, every* and *no* are classed as *pronominals*; nor is it true that, "*in parsing he* ALWAYS *calls* THE *a distributive.*" (See § 133.2 Rem., and § 136.1; also, pp. 66 and 67.) The *generalizing* and *definite* uses of THE are carefully discriminated and abundantly illustrated. Had these things been examined with care, they would doubtless appear among the excellences of the book.

28th defect. The reviewer omits the essential part of my remark. I say that *a* is used like the Latin *per* in *per annum, per diem*, &c. *A* or *an* is not a preposition, nor is it "used in its ordinary sense." The ordinary use of *a* or *an* is to show *the singular use of a generic term*: (1.) He receives a dollar a day—one dollar EACH day. (2.) They ruled a year a man—one year EACH man. (3.) A spoonful an hour is a dose for a child—one spoonful EACH hour, &c. Can you supply a preposition in the second example? Is not *man* in opposition with *they?* I do not jump difficulties by supplying clumsy ellipses. These words generally denote quantity.

29th, 30th and 31st defects. Such is generally so used. The list is not complete. When we say a thing is *sweetish*, do we not mean that it possesses the quality in a less degree than the ideal with which it is compared?

32d defect. "An object is understood after the preposition in all such cases." No, sir. In the sentence, *I keep under my body, under* is not a preposition, as the sentence does not mean that the person speaking is *under* his body, but that he controls it. In the passive form, under would remain with the verb: as, *My body is kept under.* These words are used in three ways—(1.) inseparably: as, *I* UNDER*take;* (2.) separably: as, *I am laughed* AT; (3.) as prepositions.

33d defect. "Without a governing word" should be without a preposition. This phraseology is also one of the gods from beyond the flood, which shall be put away. "This is a favorite *specialty* of the author's." "It seems to me to be very *unphilological.*" I hope your readers will excuse any seeming pedantry in any references I make to comparative grammar. *Time when* is expressed in Anglo-Saxon by the *dative* without a preposition, and *time how long, age, size, extent, weight, value*, and *price*, by the *genitive.* When the language lost its inflections the relation was not changed, and these categories are expressed by nouns usually regarded as being in the objective case without prepositions. These nouns generally express *quantity*, and hence I have called this construction the *quantitative complement*, regarding it as an independent adverbial element. These words are nouns, not adverbs, but nouns used to express adverbial relations. To supply a preposition, is to mar the beauty of the idiom. Who would say, *He went to home, He came on yesterday?* Yet this is what the reviewer would have us do.

34th defect. "Twenty-seven classes of prepositions!" Not so. The only classes given are *simple* and *composite*, based on their etymology

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The relations expressed by prepositions are enumerated. For instance, (§ 195.7,) I give the words, *besides, but, except, save, unless, without,* as expressing *exclusion.* Why should not the relations expressed by prepositions be carefully marked?

35*th defect.* "Why such adjectives are called verbal we are not informed." Does the reviewer not know that these words are generally called verbal adjectives. (See Buttmann's Greek Grammar, § 102; Harkness, § 328.) I called them verbal because they are followed by nouns and pronouns as complements. *The house stood* NEAR *the river; near* is an adjective, having a complement, river. Do not these adjectives always require an oblique case after them?

36*th defect.* "A tedious list." If it were exhaustive, would it be less "tedious?"

37*th defect.* "THIRTY-ONE sub-divisions!" I shall reduce the machinery here. Most of these so-called sub-divisions are illustrations.

38*th defect.* *Whatever, whatsoever,* &c., as in Latin, frequently have a concessive force; as, WHATEVER *you do, you cannot please him.* § 382, d, needs revision to express clearly what is intended.

39*th defect.* "Conjunctives are divided into sixteen classes!" Not so. There are two classes: Coördinate, including Copulative, Adversative and Alternative; and Sub-ordinate, including Substantive, Conditional, Concessive, Final and Causal. (See p. 137.) Elsewhere the reviewer says: "The conjunctions are classified and sub-classified with careful regard to philology." This should answer his 40th defect.

41*st defect.* Verbs of this class were followed by the genitive in *Anglo-Saxon,* and usually take a preposition before their complement in English: as, *I heard from my friend.*

42*nd defect.* Read §§ 426, 427 and 162.

43*rd defect.* Read § 442.1 Rem., and Rem., on page 219. The reviewer presents only a part of what I say.

44*th defect.* "*Both the sounds and characters representing them are vowels and consonants!*" True, and hence we have such delightful definitions as these: "A vowel is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone." UTTERING *a letter!* A letter is written and is cognized by the eye, while a *sound* is uttered and is cognized by the ear. To tell a child that *a, i, o, u, w,* and *y,* are vowels, is to confuse him, but to produce these sounds and then show the child how to represent them, is to remove one of the greatest stumbling-blocks out of his way. Why not say, the sounds usually denoted by *a, e, i, o, u, w,* and *y,* are vowels? The argument *ad verecundiam* is fallacious. Words and things should not be confounded. That which represents cannot be that which is represented.

45*th defect.* "There is not much order about it." Indeed! When a reviewer says he will follow the order of a book, and then begins at page 184, and goes thence to page xvi, thence to page 73, next to page xxi, then to 104 and back to page xxv, etc., he should tell his readers that he forgot what he said at the beginning. To mix and transpose what an author has separated and arranged in *progressive* order, and then make the wholesale charge of want of order, is most reprehensible. He may, however, have done the best he could.

46*th defect.* "Mr. V. finds use for ALL the technical terms ever invented in grammar." A gross exaggeration. I do not use common gender, potential mode, regular and irregular verbs, logical subject, and innumerable other terms.

Indifferences: 1. The reviewer must have been hunting small game or he would not have found so many *buck-rabbits.* 2. "*Woe worth the day.*" There is a misprint of *transitive* for *intransitive.* If the reviewer had looked at Webster's Dictionary, he would have found *worth* to be an old imperative form of a verb meaning *to be, to become, to happen. Woe* is also given as a noun. He speaks of the imperative having three persons as a doubtful or indifferent feature. Now, I will join issue on this point. If grammarians generally do not recognize the imperative as having three persons, and it should be demonstrated to have three persons, then this would prove to be an excellence which the reviewer failed to perceive.

To illustrate this matter a little further, let us take the first verse of the xiv chapter of St. John's Gospel: "*Let not your heart be troubled.*" In Latin and Greek the noun *heart* is in the nominative case. *Be troubled* is third person imperative in Greek, and third person subjunctive in Latin. In Wycliffe's translation, A. D., 1380, it is rendered: "*Be not your heart afraid.*" Tyndale, 1534, renders it: "*Let not your heart be troubled.*" In Anglo-Saxon, the subjunctive was used in imperative sentences to soften a command. *Uton,* (*let us go,* or *go we,*) like *eamus* in Latin and *allons* in French, was used with the infinitive to express command iu the first person plural. In the Ancren Riwle, about 1,200, we have, *Ower schone been greate and warme*—[*Let*] *your shoes be large and warm.* In the development of the language, *let* has come to be used as an auxiliary to form the first and third persons of the imperative. It has not, however, lost its native force entirely, as this periphrastic imperative has its subject in the objective case, being originally the subject of the infinitive after *let* which by the process of *dialectic regeneration,* now expresses a grammatical category. We have, therefore, two forms for the first and third persons of the imperative, both of which can be illustrated from our literature:

"Cursed *be* that base marauder's *lance.*"—*Scott.*

"Hung *be* the *heavens* with black, yield day to night!
Comets, importing change of times and states,
Brandish your crystallesses in the sky,
And with them scourge the bad revolting world."
—*Shakspere.*

"My soul *turn* from them—*turn* we to survey."
—*Thompson.*

"'And *rest* we here,' Matilda said."—*Scott.*

In an article from the *Dublin University Magazine,* I find this sentence: Turn WE for a moment or two to another phase of the highway of cloud."

There are many other things in this remarkable review that discover a lack of genuine critical ability. The reviewer has certainly illustrated the aphorism: "*Nothing is so very easy as to object.*" For the few imperfections he has pointed out, I am thankful, especially as I have not yet, in some respects at least, realized my ideal. My book is a growth, and it shall continue to grow, not in size but towards perfection, if care and study can make it what I desire it to be. I shall carefully consider all well-matured objections.

Annville, Pa., Feb. 15, 1871. T. R. VICKROY

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THE WESTERN
EDUCATIONAL REV

WHAT IS SAID OF

The Western Educational Review is an educational periodical in the highest sense of the term. Containing more reading matter than any similar publication in the West, and printed in finer style by far, its extremely low subscription price of one dollar and fifty cents a year places it within the reach of every lover of a pure literature in the Nation.—[Macon (Mo.) Journal.

This is a splendid Magazine, devoted to Education, Science, and Literature. We certainly wish its editors success commensurate with the importance of the subjects advocated, and the ability they evince in their presentation. The Review should be in the possession of every family in the State. All teachers will find it an invaluable aid.—[Sedalia (Mo.) Democrat.

The number before us is replete with choice original reading matter, emanating from some of the most distinguished educators in the West. It is well arranged, neatly and plainly printed, and contains some fifty pages, which are from forty to seventy per cent larger than those of any other educational magazine in the West. It merits the patronage of every teacher, scholar and friend of education in the land, and we wish its enterprising publishers a full measure of success.—[Kansas City Bulletin.

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May, 1871.

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THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1871.

NATURE TEACHING.

I trust that some of those who read the article under this head in the last REVIEW have determined to notice the wonders of the insect world as the progress of the season brings them successively to light, and to use these objects for the instruction and amusement of others. You will find that children take the greatest interest in these things, and will forsake their play, or rather, it will become play to them, to chase some winged insect; and the fortunate captor, heading an eager troop, will come to you bearing his trophies as proudly as any conqueror. This interest will extend beyond the school-room, from the parents down to the youngest member of the family. Said one little fellow who was just able to lisp, on spying a toad: "A bug! a bug for Misser Hobart!" Frequently persons have come miles to bring me some rare thing. One of the last articles furnished me in this way was the skull of a musk-ox, and was brought twenty-five miles.

I have had this specimen carefully figured in its present imperfect state, as it is one of much interest. It was buried twenty-five feet beneath the surface of the ground, and was found in digging a well. Prof. S. F. Baird, of the Smithsonian Institute, writes to me that it is the only fragment of the musk ox that, to his knowledge, has ever been found

south of the Hudson Bay territory—to the extreme northern part of which this animal is now confined.

The Musk Ox.

Notice in the figure of the skull the

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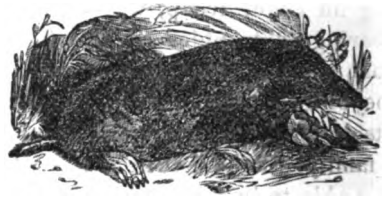
distinguishing peculiarity of the horns turned down by the side of the head. The horns themselves, with the turned up tips, which are seen in the figure of the living animal, are gone, only the bony interior part remaining. The nasal bones, and all the skull below the eye sockets are gone also, having crumbled as soon as exposed to the air. A marked peculiarity is the great space at the base of the skull, to which the strong muscles of the neck were attached.

Of the divisions of the mollusca you will have no difficulty in obtaining illustrations. The children will gather shells from the brooks, and will at once perceive the difference between a univalve and a bivalve, and will soon come to distinguish the delicate Physa (or bubble-shell of the lakes,) from the smooth-sided Planorbis, or from the Paludina, the most common of our snails. The common mussel, with its rings of annual growth—the land-snail travelling leisurely along with its house on its back—and a thousand other objects meet us on every side, as if to court our attention. One has only to stoop, to read a book more fascinating than ever was made by man.

The Snail.

Remember that the scientific value of your collection depends not so much upon having rare specimens from distant seas, as in representing fully the life of your own locality. When you have an opportunity to get good specimens, secure them in large quantity, for another way in which you are to add to the variety and interest of your cabinet is by exchanges, which other collectors will always be glad to make with you. And do not fail to impress upon the minds of your pupils some of the etiquette of the cabinet. Though it is not right to ask for anything that is seen in another collection, it is always proper to offer to exchange for it. An article should not be removed from the shelves without the owner's permission, and great care should be taken to replace it as it was found. In arranging your cabinet, you will find shallow paper boxes most convenient for holding small shells or other diminutive objects.

The vertebrata, as they are the noblest of the animal creation, furnish the clearest illustrations of complete adaptation of structure to the manner of life, and most strikingly display the wisdom of the Creator. Some specimens of the higher animals will, therefore, be very desirable. Stuffed skins are the best, but as they are difficult to prepare, you will have to do the best you can. If, for example, you are able to procure the skin of a mole, it will tell its story, however unskillfully put up.



The Mole.

The minute eyes are hidden in dense fur, for he has little need of sight in the dark passages; and, while he is at his work, more exposed and delicate organs would be in constant danger. His soft, sleek fur is always clean, though in the midst of the dirt, for nothing will adhere to it. In the specimen you will most likely find, the fur is of a bright gleaming color. This handsomest species—the silver mole—is peculiar to our Western prairies. The mole of the Eastern

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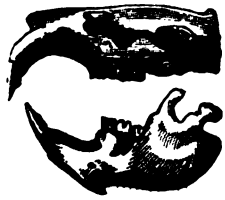
States is of a duller color. Notice, too, how he is furnished with the means of working his way through the ground. The nose is sharp and bony to the tip, and the fore paws are remarkably broad and powerful. If you can secure the bones of the fore paw, as shown in the cut, they will still more clearly exhibit the special adaptation of this structure to the work that it is intended to perform.

Fore Paw of Mole.

If you are unable to stuff and set up the skins of animals, still you can, as you have opportunity, secure the skulls, or any part of the skeleton that, like the one figured above, shows a marked peculiarity of structure. The skull always tells you much of the habits of the animal, for these must correspond with the structure of its teeth. In the squirrel, the gnawing front teeth are characteristic. Only the front side of these teeth is of enamel, and, in use, the rear portion of them wears away the more rapidly, having always a sharp, chisel-like edge of enamel. In marked contrast with this are the teeth of the wild cat, or other carniverous animals. Instead of gnawing teeth and grinders, the teeth are all sharp-pointed, adapted to seizing the animal's prey and tearing its flesh.



Teeth of Carniverous Animal.

It is best not to separate a skull, you wish to preserve, from the flesh by boiling, as that will leave it much discolored; but cut off what flesh you can, and then macerate it, setting it aside in a vessel of cold water for a week or two, when it can be scraped and will come out white and clean.

Birds are the poetry of nature—their beautiful forms and colors, and graceful movements compel the admiration of the most careless, and the wonderful perfection of their structure presents numberless themes of instruction. I cannot now give you detailed instruction in Taxidermy. To put up birds well requires much patience and skill. Though you may not be able to do all you desire, still you can do something. You can teach your pupils to distinguish by their notes the winged songsters that come about the school-house, to learn their appearance and habits, and the families into which they are grouped. You can, perhaps, exhibit to them a claw, or a skull, or draw forth the long, elastic, harpoon-like tongue of a wood-pecker, and show how much any one of these things tells of the organization and life of the owner.

Wood-pecker's Tongue.

In regard to Botany, if you love it you will be likely to make an herbarium, but the living forms about you will always give you an abundance of objects The younger children will be interested to become more fully acquainted with individual plants, and learn their right names. For the older, you can group them into families and give the general principles of classification. The classes of endogenous and exogenous plants have so many points of difference that the division will be readily learned and always retained.

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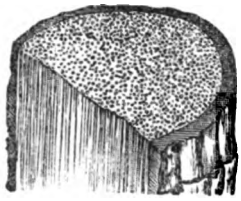
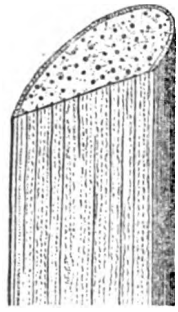
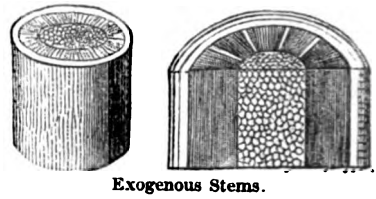




Take a section of palmetto wood, or a piece of corn-stalk, and show how these endogenous stems consist simply of a bundle of fibres or threads of wood, not arrayed in layers around a central pith, but scattered indiscriminately through the whole stalk. These grow from within and spread outwards, and the centre remains alive as long as the plant does. They will be readily distinguished from exogenous stems, such as our common woods, which add one regular layer after another by the process of outside growth.



Exogenous Stems.

No lessons can be more important or interesting than those which will suggest themselves to you in the structure and the growth of plants, the movements of the sap, and the wonderful chemistry of the leaves.

One of the best books to aid you in this interesting study is "Gray's School and Field Book of Botany," an extended notice of which was given on page 122 in the last number of THE REVIEW.

E. F. HOBART.

[*To be continued.*]

A WEEK IN THE EDINBURGH SCHOOLS.

(*Concluded.*)

In respect to school discipline, there is also a great difference between their schools and ours, and this difference is two-fold—a difference in the degree of quiet and decorum demanded, and a difference in the methods of securing it. It would be very difficult, perhaps impossible for us to conduct a school successfully with the restlessness and disquiet that very generally prevailed in the schools I saw, and which I have much reason to believe is not very objectionable there. With them, comparatively little study is done in the school-room. I saw no pupils attempting to study in rooms where recitations were being conducted. The pupil is at the school for instruction and recitation, and the most of his preparation is made at home under the oversight of his parents; while with us much studying is done in rooms where recitations are being conducted. This fact necessitates a very different phase of school order with us from that demanded in their schools.

Our class-work must not be allowed to encroach farther than is necessary upon the attention of the pupils who are studying in the room. As a consequence of this, our class-room decorum is adjusted rather to the needs of the pupils who are studying, than to the especial advantage of the members of the class, among whom there is a common interest centered upon the teacher, and hence much less danger of distracting the attention than with the individual pupils who are studying by themselves. With the change of attitude and position permitted by them the pupils escape the weariness that ours unavoidably feel

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during the school-hours, and I am not at all prepared to say that the advantages we derive from the greater quiet we secure are not more than counterbalanced by the consequent weariness of the pupils, when we consider the work of the successive hours of each of the successive days. I say this exclusively in respect to the class that is reciting, for when pupils are studying in the room a sacrifice must be made in favor of securing to them their uninterrupted time; but this, of course, suggests the question whether our present method of requiring pupils to study in rooms where recitations are conducted is a wise arrangement.

In respect to the mode of securing the desirable decorum, Europeans themselves will, I think, for the most part admit that we are far in advance of them—just as far in advance of them as self-government is in advance of obedience to external authority. Our methods of discipline are necessary for the proper training of youths who are to be citizens of a Republic. Theirs are in harmony with monarchical institutions and the entailed legacy of their past. We aim at a phase of school decorum which, in kind and degree, shall secure to each pupil the free use of his time, without trammel or trespass from other pupils; that is, our school laws, like our civil laws, aim at securing for each his individual freedom. But to attain this, each pupil has to be well grounded in the principle that he has no right to do what would result in harm if every pupil followed his example; he is taught that his whims or personal feelings must be subordinate to the general good; that is, whatever laws exist, the pupil is made to see exist for his advantage, to secure him in the possession of his untrammeled rights; and whatever influence is brought to bear, by the teacher, upon his personal conduct comes from the stand-point of the greatest good to the school, and the necessity of allowing to others the same rights that he demands for himself. If the pupil disturbs his teacher, the teacher says to him, "You have no more right to my time than the other pupils. I am here to do the best I can for the school, and you must conduct yourself in such a way as not to defraud the other pupils of their claims upon me." If he disturbs another pupil, the teacher says to him, "You do not like to have your companions infringe upon your time, what right then have you to make demands upon theirs?"

American school government proceeds upon the ground of securing to each pupil the fullest control of his time and energies, and, in this respect, the teacher is only a sort of impersonal agent, who looks after the even adjustment of these individual claims. And the pupil observes school regulations not because the teacher desires it, but because he feels that it is selfish, unmanly, and mean to do otherwise. He is orderly in this school community, from precisely the same reasons that his father is an orderly member of the larger social community of the town in which he resides. And when an acute conscience is lacking, the public sentiment in the school does as much to repress a disorderly spirit as the public sentiment of a community can do. In European schools the pupil is taught that he must not do what is in opposition to the wishes of his teacher, but, as the teacher's wishes almost necessarily vary more or less with his moods, the pupil comes in a large majority of cases to yield obedience to commands rather than to principles, which is the natural apprenticeship for a monarchical citizenship.

In visiting these schools, it did not seem to me difficult to see why European

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teachers have difficulty in managing our American pupils, and why the very plans they pursue so successfully in European countries fail with us. I assume it is an unquestioned fact, that, as a general rule, these teachers do not have the same degree of success with us that they have in their own countries. The reasons for this lie both in their method of teaching and governing, and in the resulting personal relations with their pupils. In reference to their methods of teaching, they work from the European basis, where the teacher authoritatively assigns the lesson and the pupil obediently learns it. With us the teacher assigns such a lesson as he thinks the pupils will like to learn, and the pupils learn it because they like to do it—that is, the lesson is placed at the mercy of the preference or voluntary choice of the class. I do not mean at the choice of each individual member of the class, but at the collective will of the class. We say in society no moral legislation can be made effective till the majority of influence in the community is in sympathy with it. The same principles hold with an equal degree of truth in school. Regulations in regard to discipline or mental work cannot be enforced till the majority of influence in the school is in favor of it. Under the direction of an energetic and wise teacher, many circumstances combine to place the standard of works high. Pupils of the best mental ability—and by this I mean, not only capacity to receive, but energy to acquire—will always be striving to push the standard forward, and this mainly for two reasons: first, from their natural greed for knowledge; second, from a spirit of rivalry; they know that it is in difficult lessons that they show their superiority over ordinary pupils. If the lessons are short and easy, all the pupils stand more nearly on the same level. Hence the best pupils are always endeavoring to shove the standard to a place where they can not only acquire most, but also where they can give most convincing proof of their utmost superiority—and the standard will be kept much above the medium rank of the class, since the better members have so much more influence than the poorer ones. And improved class-work can be secured only by getting the class to desire to do better work. But in European countries where individual authority is recognized, the teacher finds no difficulty in making the pupils submit to absolute demands. The teacher is in a position of authority, and all the elements of society combine to maintain his authority. Hence, he has only to measure out the amount of work suited to the best mental and physical development of the child, and his success is tested by his skill in enforcing his demands. When he attempts the same here he fails, and complains that he is not supported by the community and school officials. Foreigners are just as distrustful of our plans in their schools—repeatedly they said to me, "It would be impossible to manage European children in your way,"—"What you tell me of your schools is most astonishing,"—"Our children must be different." And so they are, inasmuch as they are accustomed to different methods and expect different methods; besides, the starting-point of life is different in the two countries: here, individual freedom infuses all the streams of life—there, authority and obedience; second, this absolute attitude assumed by the teacher places him in disagreeable personal relations with his pupils. This assertion of power that they know he does not possess creates a spirit of rebellion, and yet not of a serious character, since the powerlessness of this assertion shields them from any genuine tyranny. The pupils feel no bitterness,

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but delight in showing the ridiculousness of this man of straw who wears the emperor's hat.

A third cause of trouble is, that both pupils and community demand of these teachers a style of order that they have not been accustomed to, and, naturally enough, see no occasion for. They see no reason why a boy should sit like a statue during the whole five or six hours of the day that he is in school. This I conceive to be one of the greatest troubles that these foreign teachers have. The pupils and on-lookers misunderstand this lenity. They consider it a weakness on the part of the teacher that he does not secure the same decorum that they see under other teachers. That is, the greater disorder they attribute to the weakness of the teacher, hence their respect for him is lessened, and a distrust is born that is fatal to the highest success. In the European schools I saw this disorder meant nothing. The mother teaching her child does not care whether he lies on the floor, or sits in his chair, or clings to her lap—the only point is that he shall know his lesson. In the Academy at Edinburgh, which is at present the most aristocratic school of the city, though of equal merit with the High School, I saw a Latin class of sixty boys from eleven to fourteen. The teacher was said to be a man of marked linguistic attainments. The pupils were seated in one row around the walls of the room, or rather, the seats for them were there; some were standing, others were resting one knee on the floor; in fact, it would be difficult to think of an attitude that was not there represented. At a glance, I should have said, much less than half the pupils knew anything of what the teacher was doing, but in observing more carefully, I discovered that, as the questions came in turn down from the head, all the bright boys knew when there was a chance for them to get up in class, or a danger of their falling down. Sometimes when the question came on a little faster than was expected, there was a decided hustle to get themselves into a place to secure their chance, —and, on one occasion, in his extreme hurry, a little fellow leaped toad-fashion from the floor beside his seat into the middle of the room; but no one laughed, evidently no one thought it funny. He saved time and got his chance to recite, which half a dozen boys below him were eager to snatch away from him. If a little too much noise occurred in any part of the room, the teacher hastily turned in that direction, and, selecting the first boy upon whom his attention fixed, peremptorily ordered him down five or ten in his class, according to the measure of the annoyance. The victim hung his head and obeyed, without either offering resistance or asserting his innocence, and the bigger rogues smiled at their good luck. No time was lost, except the half minute to give the order, and the class seemed scarcely aware of any interruption. I left this room very undecided in regard to whether I had seen good class-work. The boys were very noisy and apparently disorderly, and the teacher was intensely bent upon asking every possible question that could in any way be linked to the lesson. But, upon inquiry, I heard the teacher had unusual reputation for securing high attainments in his pupils. It was here that I saw the class in Analytical Geometry, where the order and teaching seemed a good deal more American; but before the close of the hour the regular teacher left the room, and a tutor came in to finish the recitation. It would be impossible to describe the scene that followed, and I am sure only the ingenuity of brilliant boys could have devised so great a variety of intangible methods

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for annoying a teacher who stood with delegated authority on temporary ground. He could not speak one half sentence without being forced to stop by some unendurable annoyance. Here I saw, in full blossom, what I was repeatedly told would necessarily happen, if our methods of securing order should be adopted. In the High School the pupils were more quiet, and apparently attentive to their work. The teacher whose work impressed me at the time best, who secured the most constant attention from the boys, and who seemed to keep them most alive and make them do the best thinking, I was told, upon inquiry, was a popular, agreeable man, but was by no means ranked high as a teacher; as his pupils did more superficial work than the pupils of most of the teachers. This, of course, led me to distrust my first impressions of the merit of their work, or rather, to free myself from our American tests of good teaching, and to search for the principles by which they measured excellence.

I heard a more advanced Latin class in this school, which seemed to me very much superior to what I had seen in the Academy, and I learned that the master was a man of authority in Latin lore, and yet, on outside inquiry, I everywhere heard there was but little difference in the merit of the two schools.

In the private school, where I spent the most time, from the accident of having a better acquaintance with the teachers, I saw probably the severest exemplification of their school discipline. I already had quite a familiar acquaintance with the principal of the school and one of the teachers, both of whom were gentlemen of the most liberal and advanced views. I had talked a good deal of schools with them, and learned their system of government before visiting the school, and had been particularly interested in the accounts they had given me of a Yankee Scot, who was in their school. And I had been specially invited, as a matter of amusement, to witness the efforts of the principal to extract Grammar from the Yankee Scot, who was represented as a boy of incorrigible obstinacy, who simply *would not* parse till he had been unmercifully caned. I went to the Grammar class, and on hearing Scott called, was much surprised to see a pale, slender boy of ten rise to his feet. His grammar was certainly bungling enough, as one would expect from a child of that age, and the repeated efforts to get grammar from him were evidently pouring grammar into him, rather than extracting it out of him. There was no use made of the cane that day, though it was firmly held in the master's hand. The pupils in this school were quieter than in most of the others, but the plan of management seemed altogether savage. The teachers did not fly into a passion, but, on the other hand, the correction was administered coolly, and seemed the regular offset to a want of knowledge in the pupils. The tiniest hands were switched, because the head did not remember what the teacher had said the day before. When I say there was better order here than in most of the schools, I do not mean that there was such order as is at present demanded in our American schools. The children stand and sit, and otherwise act, just about as they do at home, and their restlessness is not much observed by the teacher. His work is to see that the lesson is learned.

The faults of the pupils were freely told to me in their presence. The Yankee Scot would have had no difficulty in hearing himself portrayed to me if he had listened. Also, half his forty class-mates might have heard the same, and the teacher called them rogue.

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rascal, scoundrel, or blockhead, according as the epithet came first in mind—and yet, in speaking in this way, there was no rancor in the teacher, and it seemed only like suggesting the genus of which this act was a sort of prophetic promise. And calling a boy a rascal seemed, in spirit, to be scarcely more than saying beware of being a rascal. We, in America, are more observant of personal courtesies to children, and direct our intercourse with them with a prophetic eye on the time when they shall be rational beings,—and we accept discourtesies from them with a strict regard to maintaining our own dignity, so that we may demand their respect when they shall have become rational.

These points, then, are to be kept strictly in mind: first, they have much less quiet in school than we; second, the disquiet is not disorder, since it is not in violation of school-laws, and does not proceed from a desire to create disturbance; third, as it is customary it creates no amusement, and thus produces much less disturbance than with us. In regard to the harsh and rough treatment of children, it is wholly in accordance with the authoritative spirit of their society, and the children accept it in the spirit in which it is given—as a means to drive them to the pursuit of their own best interests. The domestic rule is so positive that they are accustomed from the earliest time to submit to those in power, and they submit to the authority without questioning the justice of its discriminations. When these teachers come here, it is not strange that they have difficulty in adjusting themselves on the basis of these new relations.

From their former experience they feel that their work is to assign lessons, and the pupil's work is to learn them—that they are to command and the pupils to obey; while our pupils have learned, as soon as they could talk, to set up that great Palladium of English liberty—a trial by their peers; and that teacher fails who cannot get a verdict in his favor from the jury of his class.

It must be understood that the effect of all these things depends upon the spirit in which they are received, and this depends on custom. The laugh of a child creates no disturbance among the readers in the home drawing-room, because it is not unusual.

What I have said in respect to order has been wholly in reference to boys' schools. I saw less of girls' schools. I was pressed for time, and was eager to give the little I had to seeing the best methods of teaching—the work of master-teachers—this I knew I should not find in the girls' schools.

What I saw in these schools, combined with memories I brought from my own school-days, led me into a little distrust of the extreme importance we place upon securing the constant and unflagging attention of each pupil to everything going on in class. A pupil who knows the lesson thoroughly derives very little advantage from hearing others, who only half know it, blunder over it, while a very positive injury comes in the shape of weariness, from keeping the mind intent upon what does not interest it. When I went to college, I started with the plan of giving my undivided attention to whatever came up in the recitation hour; but I soon found that it was impossible to do this, and save the energy I wanted for preparing my lessons. So I voluntarily abandoned this plan, and only gave such attention to the recitations of my classmates as was sufficient for securing my own chances for recitation, with a fair probability of having my attention aroused if anything new was presented. I was convinced that I could do more valuable work in the day by pursuing

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this course. Since that, I have always felt a little conscience-stricken at making my best pupils wade through all the underbrush with the lower half of the class. This is not aimed at in the European schools I saw, and I am strongly inclined to think their course in this respect is wiser than ours, and yet I do not quite see how we can avoid making this injurious demand upon our better pupils without incurring the risk of a corresponding loss to our poorer pupils.

The whole system in the European schools allows and fosters much more individuality than ours. There is no effort to make giants and pigmies fit into the same mould.

MARY E. BEEDY.

XENOPHON'S PANTHEIA.

Oh! bluest springs the gentian near
The everlasting snow,
And soft and delicate, beneath
The hardest rock in finest wreath,
The pink-flowered mosses grow.

Not less the fingers deft that wove
The purple mantle fair,
And lingered, pleased, the threads among,
As round her husband's form it hung,
Could brace the armor there.

And lips that stooped to press the step
His foot had mounted by
The chariot's height, not less I wis
Could give, with close-shut eyes, the kiss
That sent him forth to die.

Not less the heart, with tenderest love
And longing running o'er,
Could sheathe his sword at set of sun
Within itself, the battle won,
Where he had fallen before.

Ah! firmest lies the untrodden snow
Where springs the gentian blue;
And flintiest rocks reach out to shade
The fine, sweet flowers that never fade,
Yet bloom each day anew.

—ANNA C. BRACKETT.

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LYRIC POETRY.

Poetry, as Aristotle has long ago shown, might be classified on three principles, according to: 1st. Subject; 2d. Form; 3d. Relation of the poet to the subject. It will be found, upon examination, that the first two principles would give very awkward divisions, and that the common sense of people has withheld them from applying them.

If we classify according to subject, we shall have epic and dramatic poetry coming under one head; if we classify according to form—that is, to versification or external embellishment—we have the same difficulty. Modern epics and dramas use the same metre for the most part; and ballads, which have close relation to epic poetry, appear often in the same forms that lyric poetry does. If, on the other hand, we classify according to the poet's relation to his subject, we shall find, not only that we have a convenient, an exhaustive, and a generic division, but likewise that we can still use the other two principles to a considerable extent in subordination to this one. On this principle, poetry divides itself into Dramatic, Narrative or Epic, and Emotional or Lyric, here arranged in the order of their objectivity.

In the first, the poet disappears entirely behind his work, and it remains as directly objective to the spectator as a statue or a painting. As, in this, the poet renounces the right of speaking in his own person, the subject of a drama must always be a series of actions. Description can never be an aim of a dramatic piece; but, if it does occur, it must always be subordinate to action. Expression of feeling has no part in a drama, except in so far as it helps to explain subsequent actions. Soliloquies, with all respect to the shade of Shakspere be it said, are defects.

In narrative poetry, the poet comes between the subject and the reader or listener, and relates, without, however, mingling his own personality with his subject. He never tells how a thing affected him, but how it actually was. He calls upon the Muse, the representative of objective vision, to inspire his song, he remaining merely a mouthpiece.

When a narrative poem has a dramatic subject we call it an epic or a ballad, if not, we call it a descriptive poem. But there are sub-species of the narrative poem, which it would be hard to class—*e. g., Aurora Leigh*; *Spanish Gypsy*.

In Lyric Poetry all is different; the poet here speaks in his own person, utters his own feelings, and uses the objective world only as a means subordinate to this purpose. A lyric poem is an expression of a complex, involuntary feeling or emotional state, bodied forth in disconnected, sensuous images, by means of rhythmical language.

Thought is fossilized feeling; words are petrified, concreted expressions of emotion that have grown familiar. As man advances in civilization, his emotions become more complex, and are more difficult to embody, so that he gets possession of them. The expression of a complex feeling in art-form is a lyric poem. Just as at the basis of a narrative or a dramatic poem there lies an action or series of actions, so at the basis of a lyric there lies a feeling. Whatever occurs in a lyric poem, beyond the expression of the feeling, is subordinate to that expression and takes its color from the feeling. Lyric is exactly the reverse of dramatic poetry. In the

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latter the poet lays aside his personality and assumes that of his characters, looking at the world only through their eyes; in the former, he imposes his own personality, his own thoughts and feelings, upon all the world. According to the mood of his mind, it may seem "as if for a banquet all earth were spread," or he may see it with a "jaundiced eye," as a "rank, unweeded garden." The feeling is the first thing, all narrative or other matter quite secondary.

As an epic poem begins with the statement of its subject in the first line—a subject which it then proceeds to develop—so in a lyric poem the nature of the feeling ought to be made plain, and give the tone to the whole poem. But the subject is not to be *stated* in words; it ought rather to be brought out by some unmistakable expression or word. All statement of purpose or aim is out of place in a lyric poem, all attempt at plan, such as narrative requires. Unity of feeling and unity of thought do not follow the same rules. Above all, a lyric poem should not be logical, any more than a piece of music. The epic poem and the drama give us what is universal in man; the lyric poem, what is cramped and finite.

The epic and the drama flourish only among men who are in harmony with nature and the institutions around them. They have a festive origin, and their spring is gladness. The healthy man does not feel himself. A man who has never been sick is astonished when you ask him, what sort of a constitution he has. It never occurs to him that he has a constitution until suffering teaches him. So with the healthy uncramped mind—it regards all things objectively, and is astonished when spoken to about their subjective side. Let it, however, but once become inharmonious, and it will soon appear how much there is subjective in all our beholding. The development of subjectivity is a curious theme. Long ago, the mightiest thinker that ever was, said, "That which is first in nature is last to us." No one of us doubts that the principle regulating phenomena is prior to the phenomena, that cause is prior to effect, and yet to us the phenomena are first, and it is only by painful steps that we at last reach the principles. The facts of gravitation were known many thousand years before their principle. So it is with consciousness. Though the fact of self-consciousness, that *I am I*, lies at the basis and is the ground of all consciousness, yet it is one of the last facts that come into consciousness. The idea that self-consciousness is the simplest form of consciousness is utterly ridiculous. Perfect self-consciousness is the ultimate goal of all consciousness, a fact which Plotinus well knew, when he said that θεωρία was the highest form of thought. Subjectivity is developed from disharmony. Hence, lyric poetry has its origin in sorrow, and though the forms which sorrow once took have been transferred to gladness, it still remains true that all our best lyric poems have sorrowful subjects. That is the reason why they are so closely connected with music and take musical forms. Lyric poetry is the effort of a mind out of harmony to restore itself to harmony with the world. All things at bottom are musical, as Carlyle says. These facts, which are clear enough in theory, are capable of being demonstrated historically. If ever there was a people at harmony with all the world around them, it was the ancient Greeks. And what do we find? That among them epic poetry was first developed. The Iliad and the Odyssey are hundreds of years older than the oldest Greek lyric poem. It was not until the Greeks in Asia Minor were oppressed by the Oriental nations near them that Greek lyric poetry took its rise. It is a native

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of Asia Minor and the fruit of disharmony. Look, on the contrary, at the Hindoos. If ever there was a people utterly at disharmony with the world in which they were sent to dwell, that people is the Hindoos. As Max Müller says:

"Greece and India are indeed the two opposite poles in the historical development of the Aryan man. To the Greek, existence is full of life and reality; to the Hindu, it is a dream, an illusion. The Greek is at home where he is born; all his energies belong to his country; he stands and falls with his party; and he is ready to sacrifice even his life to the glory and independence of Hellas. The Hindu enters this world as a stranger; all his thoughts are directed to another world; he takes no part even where he is driven to act; and when he sacrifices his life, it is but to be delivered from it. * * * * * They shut their eyes to this world of outward seeming and activity, to open them full on the world of thought and rest." No wonder that Hindu literature begins with lyric poetry. The Vedas, perhaps the oldest literature in the world, are lyric. They are expressions of inward longings, often in the form of prayers to the gods. All religious hymns are lyric.

I have said that in lyric poetry the poet speaks in his own person, and colors nature with his own personality. This requires considerable explanation. I do not mean that the lyric poet of necessity expresses merely his own idiosyncrasies, his own personal peculiarities, though this may sometimes be the case. The greater and truer the poet, the fewer are his idiosyncrasies. The lyric poets who have attained to a world-wide reputation are those whose natural inborn feelings and emotions are the common inheritance of the vast majority of men. Generally we may say that the true poet is he who is most of what all men are.

The greatest lyric poets, most of the Greeks, as well as the Göthes, the Burnses, the Tennysons, have been men who were at first in sad disharmony with the world, but who always had strength enough to strive vigorously for harmony. They are mostly men whom strict moralists have had much room to find fault with—

> "They touched a jarring lyre at first,
> But ever strove to make it true."

Of all the kinds of poetry, lyric poetry is most liable to be affected by differences of circumstance, time, place, race, and so forth. The facts of intellectual or objective vision change much less and much more slowly than those of emotion and subjective vision. Hence, the lyric poetry of Greece is very different from the lyric poetry of Germany, or England, or America, just as these are different from each other. I find no difficulty in distinguishing between an English and an American lyric. This difference between the emotional consciousness of different ages and peoples may be very easily illustrated. Let us take, for example, an ancient Greek and a modern German lyric—the famous night-scene from Alkman, and the no less famous lines scratched by Göthe on a wall on the heights of Ilmenau. Imagine a summer evening, the sun set, and all nature in that attitude of repose which she assumes after a day of warm productivity and glad action, stillness in every direction, extending even to the soul of the sensitive spectator—"Nature," as Charlotte Bronté says, "at her evening prayer." Alkman, the old Greek of 2,500 years ago, expresses his feelings in presence of such a scene thus:

> "Sleep the summits of the mountain and the glens,
> The headlands and the torrent courses,
> And all the creeping things that the dark earth rears,

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And the beasts that have their dens in the mountains,
And the swarms of bees,
And the monsters in the depths of the purple sea;
And sleep the tribes of birds that float upon outstretched wings."

How vivid is the scene here before us; the universal stillness and repose, to which the poet has transferred the notion of sleep! But mark how the poet loses himself. He has transferred himself into the nature that surrounds him and is entirely lost in it. No word of himself as an individual. He merely expresses the notion of all poetic souls in presence of Nature's universal silence. Mark, too, how utterly free from similes, metaphors, or comparisons of any kind. The poet is so entirely swallowed up in the present, he has no time to think of any comparison. This is the true art feeling, the true appreciation of the beautiful—to be lost in it. That which excites our deepest and warmest feelings takes complete possession of us and baffles all comparison. Similes, though playing a great part in modern poetry, and particularly in lyric poetry, are, at bottom, very unpoetical things. In Homer there are, at most, three or four, and in the Greek lyric poets, Pindar excepted, hardly any. The truly beautiful sates and distracts not.

Compare now Alkman's poem with Göthe's. He says:

"On all the summits lies repose,
In all the tree-tops thou canst trace
Hardly a breath,
The little birds in the forest are silent.
Wait only, soon
Thou, too, wilt be at rest."

How like, and yet how different! Here repose "lies" on the summits; in Alkman, the summits sleep. In the latter note "In all the tree-tops *thou* tracest,"—Göthe is conscious of himself, addresses himself even; the Greek poet has no self in the presence of nature. But the greatest difference is in the last lines: "Wait only, soon thou, too, wilt be at rest." To this Alkman has nothing corresponding. The sight of nature in repose suggests no distracting thought to the Greek of early days; to Göthe, the modern German, it brings the thought of the time when he shall be at rest—a personal reference looking to the future, and showing that he does not gain that enjoyment from the contemplation of nature that the Greek does. Short as these two poems are, they are very characteristic, and I know few things more interesting that would be a comparison of them carried much farther than I have done. In these we can, as it were, put our finger upon that which distinguishes ancient from modern art, and gives the former that unquestioned, and yet uncomprehended, superiority it has so long enjoyed.

Another example of the difference that prevails between the lyrics of different ages may be found in comparing a passage of Dante with what is almost a translation of it, by Byron. The lines of Dante run thus:

'Twas now the hour which stirs the wish
Of those that sail, and melts the heart;
The day when to sweet friends they've bid adieu,
Or fills with love the recent pilgrim's breast,
If on his way he hears a distant bell,
Which seems to weep the dying day."

Here we have the same scene as before, and yet how differently it reflects itself in the mind and feelings of the mediæval poet! In the Greek we found the perfect losing of self in the scene, the absence of all remembrance and of all longing. Greek art points to nothing beyond; it is self-contained—"the one thing finished in this hasty world." Here, on the contrary, we have nothing but longing, that nameless sadness and tender aspiration that comes over the modern man, which tells at once of his Gothic descent, and his Christian rearing. Between Alkman and Dante, "a

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boundless hope has passed across the earth," and given birth to infinite aspiration. When the day departs, and silence comes with the thickening darkness, the mediæval man, instead of sinking into nature and sleeping with her sleep, feels only more acutely his disunion from her. The still hour awakes, instead of soothing desires in his heart. The sound of the vesper bell brings no joyous thought to him; it seems to mourn the dying day. The fleeting, transient nature of all earthly things, the doom "Thou shalt die" is present to the poet's mind. This, indeed, is the form in which such things present themselves to modern feeling. We have found an echo of the same thing in Göthe. It is everywhere. Herbert, the sweet singer of the 17th century, gives us:

"Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright,
The bridal of the earth and sky,
The dews shall weep thy fall to-night,
For thou must die."

Our own Whittier has:

"And when the Angel of Shadow
Sets his foot on wave and shore,
And our eyes are dim with watching,
And our hearts faint at the oar,

"Blessed is he that heareth
The signal of his release
In the bells of the holy city,
The chimes of eternal peace!"

But to return to Byron. His lines are:

"Soft hour, which wakes the wish and melts the heart
Of those who sail the seas, on the first day
When they from their sweet friends are torn apart,
Or fills with love the pilgrim on his way,
As the far bell of vesper makes him start,
Seeming to weep the dying day's decay:
Is this a fancy which our reason scorns?
Ah! surely nothing dies but something mourns."

Except the last two lines, this is merely a translation, but mark what these two lines contain. The two characteristics of the modern mind, telling of a yet deeper gulf fixed between man and nature, are here expressed in all their nakedness. "Is this a fancy which our reason scorns?" Fancy and reason are divorced in the modern mind. We distrust our fancies and feelings, deny them validity as bearers of truth; our reason scorns our fancy and emancipates itself from it. "Surely nothing dies but something mourns." The passion for generalization is here shown. The mind or reason reconciles itself to the fancy only after it has generalized the latter, and reduced it to law and order.

These comparisons might be indefinitely extended; but they are somewhat foreign to the present subject.

I shall repeat my definition of lyric poetry, and illustrate it by one or two examples.

"A lyric poem is an expression of a complex involuntary feeling or emotional state, bodied forth in disconnected images, by means of rhythmical language."

The first poem I shall take in illustration is well known:

"Break, break, break,
On thy cold, grey stones, O Sea!
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me.

"O well for the fisherman's boy,
That he shouts with his sister at play!
O well for the sailor lad,
That he sings in his boat on the bay!

"And the stately ships go on
To their haven under the hill;
But O for the touch of a vanished hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still!

"Break, break, break,
At the foot of thy crags, O Sea!
But the tender grace of a day that is dead
Will never come back to me."

It is hard to do justice by analysis to a lyric poem, and the more so the more truly lyric a poem is. At best, we can only show how well the disconnected images express the different sides of the complex feeling, and how artistic is the workmanship.

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And first, as to the occasion of the poem, historically speaking; its artistic import we can learn from itself. Tennyson had in his youth a friend—Arthur Henry Hallam—to whom he was attached by a friendship of a kind rare in modern times—deep, almost passionate. This friend died at the age of 23, at Vienna, and left Tennyson a mourner for life. His grief the poet has embodied in his *In Memoriam*—the noblest monument of affection ever erected. The poem "Break, break," was written shortly after the death of Hallam, and expresses the first outburst of nameless, numbing pain and grief which came over the poet. It is written in irregular anapests, varied by an occasional spondee or iambus.

The first lines, "Break, break, break! On thy cold, grey stones, O Sea!" tell us many things. They tell us that the poet is standing by the sea, on a rocky beach, and listening to the sound of the waves as they dash themselves against their barriers. How artistic is the very choice of scene! Does not grief seek for soothing in the presence of the great things of nature—the lonely grandeurs—through whose corridors we can hear the murmur of the outer Infinite. From the earliest, grief has betaken itself to the sea. When all that we love seems to pass from us, and nothing to abide, it is a great solace to meet that which seems changeless. Of the ocean, it seems as if Time wrote no wrinkle in its azure brow, "Such as Creation's dawn beheld, it rolleth now." In Homer, we find Achilleus, when he loses Briseis, betaking himself to the sea. It is said:

"Achilleus, with tears, wandered away far from his companions, and sat down alone on the shore of the hoary sea, looking across the boundless deep."

When he loses his friend Patroklos he again retires to the sea, and "lies down," we are told, "on a clean spot, near where the waves broke seethingly upon the beach." And from modern times, who does not remember Thekla's song in Wallenstein?

"The cloud doth gather, the green woods roar;
The damsel paces along the shore;
The billows they tumble with might, with might,
And she looks abroad to the darksome night,
Her eyelids are swelling with sorrow."

"Break, break, break." These three words stand for three anapests; they ought to be read with a long pause between each, to show the slow monotony of the changeless dash of the waves.

"On thy cold grey stones, O sea!"

Here the tone of the poet's mind is forcibly brought out. Just as in "Break, break, break," we had the monotony to the ear expressed, so in the words "cold" and "grey," we have expressed the monotony that strikes the feeling and the eye. We know at once that the poet is not in a condition to feel music in anything. His *soul* is out of tune. Notwithstanding all this, so deeply is he impressed with the conviction of the transitory nature of all earthly things, that he seems to fear lest the sea may undergo a change and become still and dead. Hence the passionate appeal, "Break, break, break."

The next lines: "I would that my tongue could utter The thoughts that arise in me," show us the poet's inability to cope with his mental state. The sea expresses all that it has to say in its everlasting "Break, break;" but the complex confused tumult in the poet's breast has not even the solace of a sound to express itself it in. Seething confusion there, more boundless than that of the sea, no limit to it, not so much as a cold grey stone, to break itself on, and give it a voice.

The next verse is,

"Ah well for the fisherman's boy
That he shouts with his sister at play,
Ah well for the sailor lad
That he sings in his boat on the bay!"

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To a mind utterly confused, every human sound, especially every sound of joy, comes with a jarring effect. To a mind at ease, what is more delightful than to stand on a rocky shore, and see the fisherman's children shouting together at play, and hear the sailor-lad singing as he plies his oar across the bay? But to a soul out of tune everything comes inverted. It is all well for them, says the poet; he seems almost to grudge them their happiness, in which he cannot partake. It appears almost to surprise him that any body can be happy. So much does his feeling color and distort everything.

"And the stately ships go on
To their haven under the hill;
But O for the touch of a vanished hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still!"

The ship, that has been away on its long voyage, comes back stately as ever, and enters its haven under the sheltering hill; but the "vanished hand," the friend that went away in all the stateliness of youth, comes never again. The children's voices and the sailor's song continue; but there is one voice mute, whose sound shall never again be heard while waves beat, and children play, and men sing songs. That thought stuns the poet again, drowns the voices of the children and the sailor's song, and calls from the poet the agonizing cry: "Break, break, break, At the foot of thy crags, O Sea!" Back again his mind turns to the limitless, confused monotony within and without, in which there is only one thing distinct, one passionate pain and longing, that acts like an earthquake: "The tender grace of a day that is dead, Will never come back to me."

There is no truer lyric than this, none in which the subjective condition more completely burns up all the objective, none in which a mental state has better embodied itself in sensuous images without even attempting to express itself directly. And how musical the language is! Pure Saxon almost, it reads like the lament of David over Saul and Jonathan, to which alone it can be compared. Tennyson is indeed one of the greatest of lyric poets. He is the only poet, so far as I know, who has ever attempted a long poem with a plot, in lyrical form. Few poems have been less understood and appreciated than "Maud," and no wonder. It is, notwithstanding, the poet's greatest work, and any person who will take the trouble to understand it, will learn more of the secrets of art, than by reading any poem I know in English, except perhaps Keat's *Hyperion*.

The next lyric I shall examine is one that is not so well known as it deserves to be. Its author has little fame, and most people don't know a good lyric when they see one; but take such things on trust, when they know that the author has a reputation.

This one is called "Helen of Kirkconnel," and the story connected with it is this:

"Helen Irving, a lady of exquisite beauty and accomplishments, daughter of the Laird of Kirkconnel, in Annandale, Scotland, was betrothed to Adam Fleming de Kirkpatrick, a young gentleman of rank and fortune in the neighborhood. Walking with her lover on the banks of the Kirtle, she was shot by a disappointed suitor. The bereaved lover thus expresses his mental state afterwards:

"I wish I were where Helen lies!
Night and dawn on me she cries,
Out o' my bed she bids me rise—
'O come, my love, to me!'

"O Helen fair, beyond compare,
I'll make a garland o' thy hair,
Shall twine my heart forever mair,
Until the day I dee.

"O Helen fair, O Helen chaste!
Were I with thee, I would be blest,

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Where thou liest low and tak'st thy rest,
On fair Kirkconnel Lea.

"Curst be the heart that thought the thought!
An' curst the hand that fired the shot!
When in my arms bird Helen dropt,
An' died for sake o' me.

"O think na' but my heart was sair,
When my love fell and spak' nae mair;
I laid her doon wi' meikle care
On fair Kirkconnel Lea.

"I laid her doon, my sword did draw;
Stern was our strife in Kirtle Shaw;
I hewed him doon in pieces sma',
For her that died for me.

"O that I were where Helen lies!
Night and day on me she cries!
I'm sick of a' beneath the skies,
Since my love died for me."

There is a strange "lilt," as Carlyle would say, a mournful tone running through the whole of this poem. It is bathed in sadness.

It is easy to see from the first verse when this poem is supposed to be uttered. The despairing lover has been sleeping and dreaming—dreaming of his lost love—"fair beyond compare;" she has been calling him to come to her; and now he wakes up to the stern reality that she is no more, that she lies low on fair Kirkconnel Lea. The first and deepest fact in his consciousness now is:

"I wish I were where Helen lies."

That, that is uppermost and takes shape even in his dreams—

"Out o' my bed she bids me rise,
'O come, my love, to me!'"

But the image that has appeared to him in his sleep still impresses itself upon his vision, and he exclaims:

"O Helen fair, beyond compare,"

and, pressing his hand upon his bursting heart, on which lie the locks cut from the dear head, he adds passionately, as if addressing the image of his imagination:

"I'll make a garland o' thy hair,
Shall twine my heart forever mair,
Until the day I dee."

The language here has a wonderful illogicality about it. To the understanding it is almost nonsense; but yet how eloquent to the passionate heart!" He is going to make a garland of her hair and bind it round his heart—a physical impossibility. But people understand those things. Love believeth all things.

But after all, the hair garland is a poor substitute for Helen herself, and so the infinite, inexpressible longing comes back, with the thought of the noble qualities of her soul:

"O Helen fair, O Helen chaste!
Were I with thee I would be blest,
Where thou liest low and tak'st thy rest,
On fair Kirkconnel Lea."

He cannot, dare not think of her as dead—she lies and takes her rest. But the naming of Kirkconnel Lea calls up the fearful scene that has shattered all his happiness, and made life not worth the living. He sees the lurking, treacherous villain, he sees the deadly shot fired, and the dear one drop in his arms, never again to look love into his eyes. He can only say:

"Curst be the heart that thought the thought!
And curst the hand that fired the shot!
When in my arms burd Helen dropt,
An' died for sake o' me!"

"For sake o' me,"—what a wonderful turn. Only a true lover can look upon things so. But it brings no comfort.

The next verses are masterpieces. We already know the qualities of the dear one. We are now to learn her lover's character, and to find in his tenderness and manly indignation the man worthy of a noble maiden, chaste, and "fair beyond compare." The verses run, addressed half to her and half to himself—

"O thinkna but my heart was sair,
When my love fell and spak nae mair;
I laid her doon wi' meikle care,
On fair Kirkconnel Lea.

I laid her doon, my sword did draw;
Stern was our strife in Kirtle Shaw;
I hewed him doon in pieces sma',
For her that died for me."

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he seems in the first line to apologize for not dying along with her. His conduct, however was far nobler than that:

"I laid her doon wi' meikle care."

How strong and self-possessed he shows himself! With the horrible fact staring him in the face, his love is so much stronger than either grief or wrath, that he lays her down with much care. What a picture! But once the demands of all-powerful love satisfied, his indignation breaks out like a tornado. He draws his sword, and their strife is stern in Kirtle Shaw. He is not satisfied with killing the villain; but the same hands that laid fair, chaste Helen "doon wi' meikle care," can also hew her murderer into fragments.

But after all, the sweetness of revenge lasts but for a moment, and as soon as it is over, back comes the fearful truth. The blow has struck his mental world into ruin, and there remains nothing but the one sleepless longing to be with Helen:

"O that I were where Helen lies!
Night and day on me she cries!
And I am weary o' the skies,
Since my love died for me."

His adored has died for him, and life is now a rank, unweeded garden, fruitless, barren. There are few lyrics equal to this.

It would be easy to find examples of true lyrics in Burns and Heyne, and among the popular songs of almost any country; but these may suffice for my present purpose.

THOS. DAVIDSON.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

IV.

There is just now a universal waking up of the public mind in regard to the necessity of establishing Normal Schools. They are springing up all over the country. This is a bright omen for the future of education—a harbinger of the good time coming. The necessity of training teachers for their work can be sustained by unanswerable arguments. The Normal School is just as definite in its aims as the Law or Medical School. A Law School does not pretend to fit men to preach the gospel, neither does the Medical School impart a knowledge of pedagogy.

We are aware of the fact that in many places in the country a strong prejudice exists against *Normal Schools*. This prejudice is based upon ignorance. Although but a few years have elapsed since the establishment of Normal Schools in the United States, they have constantly grown in public estimation, and they challenge the severest scrutiny in regard to their methods and general utility. They have brought into the field of educational labor hosts of men and women who could never have been induced to undertake its arduous work by any other means. These, with thousands of others, have gone forth, with the whole soul alive to the magnitude and dignity of the cause, as pioneers in the work of education. They have infused a new life into the schools of their respective localities, and have imparted some of their superior attainments and professional enthusiasm to their fellow-teachers. They are held up as models. Their zeal and ability inspire others with a love of teaching. The office of the teacher is thereby respected and magnified, and the profession ennobled in the eyes of the community.

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We insist upon it, that the first duty of the teacher is to *prepare* for the work. More than simple intellectual ability is required. People in the country *must* learn that a clodhopper cannot follow the plow in summer and teach his neighbor's children in the winter, even if they can save money, by employing the *school-master* to milk their cows and feed their pigs evenings and mornings to pay his board.

Nothing short of unquestionable skill and intelligence will accomplish the teacher's work. An eminent writer says: "We maintain that higher ability is required for the office of an educator of the young, than for that of a statesman. The highest ability is that which penetrates farthest into human nature; comprehends the mind in all its faculties; traces out the laws of thought and moral action; understands the perfection of human nature, and how it may be approached; understands the springs, motives, applications by which the child is to be aroused to a vigorous and harmonious action of all its faculties; understands its perils, and knows how to blend and modify the influences which outward circumstances exert on the youthful mind. The speculations of statesmen are shallow compared with these." It is the duty of the teacher who would excel, not only to prepare especially for the work by a systematic and thorough course in some Normal School, High School, or College, but to add continually to his stock of knowledge by *reading* and *study*.

To the superficial observer it may seem sufficient for the teacher to have finished the curriculum in the College or Normal School. The truth is, that in the particular subject of instruction the teacher needs to have a somewhat extensive acquaintance with kindred branches of learning. In order to give the best instruction in the very elements of a subject the teacher needs to have mastered its most difficult parts; to have gone through all its intricacies; to have borrowed light from other subjects. In illustration of this remark, what experienced teacher does not know that, other things being equal, the person who understands algebra is better qualified to teach arithmetic, and that a knowledge of astronomy is a valuable aid in teaching geography; and one who understands Latin, French, and Anglo-Saxon will be a better teacher of English grammar than the one whose knowledge is confined solely to the branches taught. All studies have a common band of affinity, so to speak. And the teacher should have a comprehensive knowledge of collateral subjects. It is the duty of the teacher to devote himself to the work. This is essential to that unity of pursuit and that concentration of the teacher's energies which shall appropriate all his acquisitions and the combined forces of his character to his calling.

The employment should be chosen as one congenial to the tastes and disposition, and even the ambition of him who enters it. It is important that there be a love for the office for its own sake, and for the good that may be accomplished in it. The details of school-room life must not be irksome; intercourse with the pupils must be made a source of pleasure, a social and intellectual gratification; the communication of knowledge and the unfolding of the youthful mind an agreeable and mental exercise; and the consciousness of having aided to enrich and develop the youthful mind an ample reward for protracted labor; in a word, the whole management of a school, including the labors of government, instruction, and supervision, must not be borne as a grievous burden to groan under, but performed with cheerful alacrity.

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Where the teacher's tastes and interests are not in his employment; where the beginning of each day begins his bondage, and the end liberates him from a prison-house; where he serves merely for hire, and from necessity, he is a most miserable man, and his school will be in a miserable condition.

It is the *duty* of the teacher not only to be devoted to the work, but to be *enthusiastic* in it. We do not mean the unnatural action of an over-stimulated mind, but the steady, ardent, glowing zeal which unites and tasks the energies of one in the pursuit of a chosen object. No one will honor the profession without *enthusiasm.* In all the professions we have fine examples of men of ardor in their pursuits, but in most instances it serves simply to impart a vigor to the powers of those possessing it. In the case of the teacher it is otherwise. Here its great value consists in its being transferable; in the power it possesses to reproduce itself in the character of the pupils, to imbue them with ardent aspirations after knowledge. So true is this, that the enthusiastic teacher can hardly fail to have earnest pupils. Who has not entered a school-room and found an iceberg behind the desk, and witnessed the mechanical movements of the poor little frozen automaton, and felt the chilliness of the frigid zone; while in the adjoining room all is sunshine, warmth, and vigor—pupils are wide-awake, with sparkling eyes, the pure fire of intelligence burning within them! What causes this difference? In the one case, it is the *want* of enthusiasm, and in the other, the *presence* of it.

Z. G. WILLSON.

NUMERALS.

THE NAMES OF OUR NUMERALS, FROM ONE TO TWELVE, ALSO OF HUNDRED, THOUSAND AND MILLION, IN AN ETYMOLOGICAL LIGHT.

Whereas all our teachers, in teaching arithmetic, are daily treating of numbers and figures, at least to those of them who are not hirelings, but desire to learn every day something new concerning their calling, it might be of some interest to read in a few words the *leading* of the various explanations of the *names* of our numerals. They are as follows:

ONE.—It seems to be allied to our prefix *un*, without; also to Sanskrit,* *ûn* or *aun*, to take away. It is consequently the negation of plurality, *i. e.*, not several.

TWO.—It is allied to Greek *dai-o*, to divide, to share; to Skr. *da*, to divide, to cut; to Dutch, *twee-n*; and to German, *ent-zwei-en*, to divide, separate, disjoin. It therefore indicates something split, cleft, one and one.

THREE.—The Skr. *tir* means to cross, to go through the middle. If we apply this to the hand, by means of which all nations in the primitive ages counted, and because, in counting the fingers, at *three* we come to the middle finger, for

* "The Sanskrit is that ancient tongue which once prevailed throughout all Hindoostan, from the Gulf of Bengal to the Arabian Sea, and from the southern extremity to the Himalaya Mountains on the north. The Sanskrit is the most compositive, flexible, and complete language yet known. It admits of being perfectly analyzed, by merely reducing its compound words to simple elements which exist in the language itself. It contains the roots of the various European dialects, of the Latin, Greek, Celtic, German, and Slavonic. The fact that all its words are composed of its own elements, and contain no exotic term, proves it to be very near its primitive state."—BOSWORTH.

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tri (three) the following meaning will result: the finger on either side of the hand, together with the middle finger, which is always the third (Skr. *tritîas*).

FOUR.—By changing the dental to the labial, the word has been corrupted from the Skr. *t-atur*, which is allied to the Gr. *athere*, the summit of an ear of grain. Therefore, the original meaning of four seems to be "ear of grain, having some similarity with the longer fingers stretched upwards."—KALTSCHMIDT.

FIVE (in Gr. *pente*).—"It is derived from *panta* (all), because five fingers are all."—WACHTER.

SIX (in Gr. *h-ex*).—"It is, perhaps, *ek*,-*ex*, beyond, in addition to, (from an obsolete verb signifying *to accrue*, to be added, joined, annexed; the root is probably the verb *ic-an*, to eke, to add,) and applied—to the number *one* more than *five*, i. e., than the number of fingers on the hand; or to the first unit added from the second hand to the number five already counted on the first."—SCHEID.

SEVE-N (in Ger. *sieb*, *sieb-en*).—As the number seven was taken to be a sacred number, it is perhaps allied to the noun *sieve*, and its derivative *to sif-t*, which indicates "to cleanse the good from the bad, to consecrate." Seven, therefore, means *the sacred number*.

EIGHT (in Spanish, *ocho*).—"It seems to be allied to Skr. *ak*, to be cornered, sharp, and to *anc*-as, knuckle, joint of a finger, and to signify the knuckles of both hands, or rather fists, which, with all men, exist in the same number. The hands are our natural counting and ciphering limbs."—KALTSCHMIDT.

N-INE (in Gothic, *Ni-un;* Anglo-Saxon, *nig-on;* German, *ne-un;* *n* O. Engl. *ne*, not; *ine* is allied to Ger. *ein*, on, one, i. e., the finger wanted by ten, being not lifted up; one of ten not, ten less one. Or, "*ni-ne*—Wal., *naw;* Latin, *nov-em;* Skr., *nav-an*. It may be allied to Latin *nov-us*, new, fresh, recent, i. e., *nov-issimus*, the last, *sc.*, of the numerals."—RICHARDSON.

T-EN (in Gothic, *tai-hun;* O. Ger., *ze-hun;* N. Ger., *ze-hn*, or *ze-hen*).—As han-d is written in Gothic and Anglo-Saxon *hun-d*, *hon-d*, the original meaning of *ten* is the hands, i. e., both the hands, or ten fingers, by which the people numbered or counted, as children still do. Or, as *ten* is properly the collection of all the fingers, the Anglo-Saxon *tyn*, ten, may be the past part of the verb *tyn-an*, to inclose, to incompass, to *tine*. "It is in the highest degree probable that all numeration was originally performed by the fingers, the actual resort of the ignorant, for the number of the fingers is still the utmost extent of numeration. The hands doubled, closed, shut in, include and conclude all number, and might therefore be denominated *tyn* or *ten*."—TOOKE.

E-LEV-EN (in O. Ger., *ein-lif.*)—It is composed of *ein*, in the sense of one, Anglo-Saxon, *ane;* and of *lev-*, i.e., lifted up, because, in exhibiting this number, (above, over,) both fists denoting ten, one finger more was lifted up, whereby eleven becomes full. Or, *e-lev-en* may be derived from *to leave*, i. e., one left after the numeration of ten, i. e., of the number of the fingers.

TWE-LVE (in Gothic, *twa-lif.*)—It consists of the numeral *twe-two*, and *lve*, lifted, so that twelve is the number which is denoted by both fists and two fingers lifted up; consequently ten fingers and two more fingers lifted up.

HUND-RED.—The first part, *hund-*, is allied to *hand*, and indicates the number denoted by the fingers of both hands ten times closed, for our forefathers numerated not only units, but decades, by the fingers. The second part, *red*, is allied to Anglo-Saxon *raed-an*, to count, to calculate, and *hund-red* will be the number

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denoted by the hands, or fingers of the hands ten times counted.

THOUS-AND.—The first part, *thous-*, is allied to the Gothic *teos*, French *dix* (ten); and the second part, *and*, is allied to Gothic *h-und-*, hundred; thousand, consequently, means ten (times a) hundred.

MILLI-ON.—This (French) word is derived from Latin *mille*, thousand, from which, by means of the augmentative *-on*, it is formed; it denotes thousand-thousand.

ERNST BREY.

Editors' Department.

SCHOOL-BOOK AGENTS.

The *Publishers' Board of Trade* has decided upon a return to the system of traveling agencies. On the first of last July, the rule of the Board restricting publishers to eight "corresponding agencies" in the United States went into effect. Nine months later, the same body modified its rule in so far as to permit each publishing firm to place ten agents in the field after the first day of July next.

In some minor respects this action of the Board is to be deprecated; but, in the main, it is, to us, eminently wise and satisfactory. The resources of many publishers had been drained to meet the expenses of field agency work prior to last July, aud the law of self-preservation demanded a cessation of hostilities: all well informed book-men, however, well knew that it was only an armistice for the purpose of burying the dead and bringing up re-inforcements. That work accomplished, we see the various antagonisms as eager for the fray as ever, but with a determination to profit by the wholesome lessons of the past. Therefore, restrictions have been made which must of necessity avert much of the evil attending the introduction of books.

People had come to cry out against frequent changes, declaring that they entailed an enormous *expense*, when, in a majority of instances, they were gainers by the transaction in dollars and cents, getting new books for old ones, and frequently a complete outfit of maps, globes, and school appurtenances in the bargain! The real evil consequently was that changes were too frequent and not always for the best books. No sooner would a series of books be fairly in use than an "even exchange" would be offered; and, with more or less effort on the part of the agent, the trade would be made. These changes frequently occurred during the school year, and were exceedingly harmful; sometimes before the plan of an author was even partially comprehended by either teacher or pupils, and almost invariably requiring a re-grading of the school. This fatal facility, damaging at once to schools and publishers, is now nearly, if not quite removed by the rule of the Board, establishing a uniform introductory rate—one-half of the retail price. No teacher, consulting the interests of pupils and parents, will involve a useless expense for the gratification of a personal preference. Unless there be some distinctive superiority in teachableness, or adaptation to the wants of the particular school, all changes in school-books are worse

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than useless; and when for these reasons changes are made, let them be made when new classes are formed, requiring new books. By this means extra expense is avoided.

Publishers have done much toward advancing school interests. We care not whether it has been forced upon them by active competition, or comes from a desire to make school-books as perfect as possible. The fact that they have furnished many first-class aids in school work is patent.

As to the agents themselves, there is no one power that has exerted so great an influence for the good of schools in the West. Superintendent Bateman, of Illinois, and Superintendent Divoll, of Missouri, bear ample testimony on this point. In a majority of instances they were gentlemen of large practical experience as teachers, well informed as to the most desirable methods of grading, conducting, and governing schools, and not infrequently first-class institute-instructors. Their loss, in this last important portion of their work was keenly felt, when they were withdrawn from the field. We call to mind only two agents in the entire West, who, when called upon to conduct an exercise in a teachers' institute, so far forgot their true interests as to use the time in presenting the merits of their employers' publications; and, as little, if any, provision is made by law for the payment of instructors at institutes, we shall welcome back this corps of faithful, energetic, competent men, confident that we reflect the sentiments of a vast majority of the teachers and school officers of the West. Let them agitate all they can—agitation is generally productive of good results. They may do harm, unintentionally, in a few instances, from over zeal, but their work in the main has been, and will be, beneficial.

FORMS FOR SCHOOL REPORTS.

We observe in quite a number of Missouri papers the publication of forms for estimates, reports, etc., which are very generally incorrect, and not according to the forms prescribed by law. As it is the duty of county superintendents to provide directors and teachers with these blanks, they should call upon him for them; and when the superintendent fails to provide them, address a request to the state superintendent at Jefferson City, which will receive prompt attention. In no case should the forms published in the newspapers be followed, although they may in some instances be correct; the state officers are already overburdened with work, and should not have the additional labor of copying and re-arranging reports on proper blanks imposed upon them, when there is no excuse for it whatever.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The next meeting of the National Teachers' Association will be held in this city on the 22d, 23rd, and 24th days of August. The teachers of St. Louis, at the last meeting of their association, appointed a committee from their number to arrange for the reception and entertainment of delegates. We hope the teachers of the West will be out in full force. The programme is not yet announced; when it is, we shall publish it.

SOUTH MISSOURI NORMAL SCHOOL.

The Board of Regents has located this school at Warrensburg. Mr. George P. Beard has been elected principal. The school is announced to begin May 10th. We may have more to say hereafter.

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Reviews and Notices.

MANUAL LATIN GRAMMAR. Prepared by WILLIAM J. ALLEN, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages and History in the University of Wisconsin; and JOSEPH H. ALLEN, Cambridge, Mass. Twelfth Edition. Published by *Edwin Ginn*, Boston; and *Fred B. Ginn*, Chicago, 1869:

[*Concluded.*]

Messrs. Allen, after informing us that the "Nouns of the third declension are classed according to their stems, whether ending in a vowel, a liquid, or a mute consonant," find themselves rather in a quandary. In *navis*, *nubes*, and *mare*, which they choose as paradigms, they write the noun sing. without separating stem (base?) and inflection, and in all the other cases make the stems appear as *nav*, *nub*, *mar*, respectively. Even in gen. plu., where the stem *i* actually appears, they put it along with the inflection! This will, perhaps, justify the remark we formerly made, that Messrs. Allen did not know the meaning of the terms *stem* and *inflection*, when they wrote their manual. In their "Supplement" they have partly corrected their mistake, and write the genitive plural of *navis* as *navi-um*, not *nav ium*. *Mar-ia* and similar forms remain uncorrected and unexplained. In looking at these facts, one cannot help feeling that "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing." Messrs. Allen, evidently familiar with only such antedeluvian grammars as Andrews and Stoddard's, and having just got a dim notion that there were such things as root, stem, and inflection, and that these were capable of being treated as distinct elements, without, however, knowing precisely what these terms implied, proceeded to embody their notion in their grammar—and arrived at the result we see. It is, indeed, in this fact that we have to look for the source of Messrs. Allen's shortcomings. They, in fact, tried to please everybody, and perhaps will end in pleasing nobody. The lazy they thought to gain by brevity, the conservative by retention of old rules and classifications, and the progressive by an apparent introduction of scientific method. That they should endeavor to do this is no reproach, but the contrary; only, had they been better informed, they would have easily convinced themselves of the impossibility of reconciling what we may call the old and the new methods.

The same faults that we have pointed out in the third declension occur in the fourth and fifth, both utterly confounding stem and inflection, and the latter presenting the following spectacle:

N. re-s,	pauperi-es.
G. rĕ-i,	pauperi-ēi.
D. rĕ-i,	pauperi-ēi.
Ac. re-m,	pauperi-em.
Voc. re-s,	pauperi-es.
Ab. re,	pauperi-ē.

Now, one asks, what could possibly induce any person to include the *e* in the termination in one case and not in the other? We say "termination," and yet Messrs. Allen don't seem to know exactly how much they include under that term, for they tell us "The termination of the nominative singular is always *ies*, except in *fides*," &c.

The list of irregular nouns is so incomplete as to be useless for any practical purpose. Some of the commonest, those which occur in the simplest Latin works are omitted, e. g., *nihil*, *Jupiter*, &c. Variable nouns are made to include those that vary in gender and meaning! The list is confined to the latter, and no notice whatever is taken of heteroclites. Finis is marked in the list as masculine only. *Jusjurandum* is said to be regularly inflected: did anybody ever see *juribus-jurandis?* Irregular nouns are classed in two divisions: the first whereof (*i. e.*, the Defective,) has no heading. "Variable" appears as II.

On pages 14 and 15 are given tables of the "Inflection of Nouns" and "Termination of Nouns." The first includes specimens of nouns of all the declensions, printed without separation of base and inflection, but with the accents, and, we presume, the English mode of syllabication. At any rate it sets at defiance the rule laid down on page 2. The second table brings together the terminations of nouns, and very incorrectly. For example, éi appears as the termination of the gen. sing. of fifth declension, and yet a few pages farther back they give *i* as the gen. sing. termination of *res*. Here, for the first time, we are told, "In the second declension, when the stem ends *er*, *ir*, the terminations of the nom. and voc. singular are not added." Once more, what in she world can Messrs. Allen mean by "termination?" We cannot point out all the loose statements upon p. 15. This brings us to the end of the nouns. We had intended to run through the whole book, but perhaps we have done enough to show that, with the best intentions, which we doubt not Messrs. Allen had, they have

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failed to produce a work which can in any way be recommended to supplant the ordinary works in general use. We may add that we have asked the opinions of several excellent teachers who have used the book, and all have concurred readily in this view.

We would say one thing in conclusion: Messrs. Allens' idea of making a text-book of Latin grammar, brief and comprehensive, is an excellent one; we need such a work. Though they have not succeeded this time in producing the desired result, yet we have seen an article from the pen of one of them, which leads us to believe that, with a little more time, care, and thought, they will be able to supply the desideratum.

GREEK PRAXIS; OR, GREEK FOR BEGINNERS. Containing Orthography, Etymology, and Greek Reading. By J. A. SPENCER, S. T. D., Professor of the Greek Language and Literature, in the College of the City of New York. New York: *Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.*

This work has nothing whatever to recommend it. It brings forward nothing new either in matter or in treatment. It is utterly unscientific in principle, and exceedingly confused in arrangement. Rules are frequently stated clumsily, and not seldom incorrectly. Take for example the following: "Nouns of this declension end in α, ι, ν, *neuter*; ω, feminine; and ν, ξ, ρ, σ, (*sic*), ψ, *of all genders*, i. e., either masculine, feminine or neuter, (except that there is no neuter in ξ or ψ). The test here applied to distinguish genders is entirely misleading, involving a confusion between stem-characteristics and inflections. For example, of nouns whose nominatives end in ς, those in which ς belongs to the stem are neuter, those in which it does not are either masculine or feminine. The definition given of tense-signs is false and refuted by the very examples adduced. If "the tense sign or characteristic is a consonant which stands immediately after the root [stem?] of the verb," θησς can hardly be tense sign, as is affirmed. It is stated that the characteristic, joined to the personal ending which follows it, forms the tense ending. If, as Dr. Spencer asserts, the characteristic of the first aorist passive is θ, the tense ending of that tense must be θν; for he surely will not say that ην is the personal ending. We could easily multiply examples of erroneous or defective rules, but the above may suffice.

Of the 98 pages devoted to etymology, 46, or nearly one-half, are occupied by the verb-paradigms alone, and after all, these are put down with such confusion, that the result is anything but satisfactory. Here and there remarkable statements occur, e.g., pp. 68-69, "There are a few verbs [!] which have what are called *second* tenses." "These tenses are of earlier formation, and usually contain the *short root* of the verb." Have verbs long and short roots?

With such works as Curtins' *Greek Grammar* (twice at least translated into English) in existence, it is almost incomprehensible that such compends as the present should appear.

A SHORT COURSE IN ASTRONOMY AND THE USE OF THE GLOBES. By HENRY KIDDLE, A. M., Superintendent of Schools, New York, Author of "New Elements of Astronomy." New York: *Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co*, 1871. 190 pp.

It is the fault of many, indeed most, of our makers of school-books, that they do not clearly distinguish between a reference-book and a text-book. They try to combine the two, and hence usually fail in making a book that can be used with any convenience. Of the manner in which a text-book should be made the one before us affords a very excellent example. Its outward appearance is elegant and tasteful, with its flexible cloth cover and red edges; the paper and printing are unusually fine, exhibiting a page upon which the eye rests with pleasure; the illustrations, which are numerous, are executed with extreme care, and compare very favorably with those of other text-books in use. But the great merits of the book consist in its lucid arrangement and clear, simple style, so free from the tawdry ornament that disgraces some of our would-be "entertaining" school-books. This little work is just such a one as painstaking teachers, who always dislike the slovenly process of "skipping," will appreciate and enjoy. It will be no unfair demand to insist that the pupils shall know it from cover to cover, and, when they do, that they will know a good deal about astronomy. We had almost forgot to refer to the exceedingly convenient and portable size of the volume—a very great recommendation in a school-book.

SUGGESTIONS AND INSTRUCTIONS TO COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE STATE OF MISSOURI; By IRA DIVOLL, State Superintendent of Schools, Jefferson City, Mo.

A pamphlet of sixteen pages, setting forth the requirements of the law, a plan for conducting teachers' institutes, examinations of teachers, visitation of schools, lecturing duties, and other valuable information for the benefit and guidance of Superintendents. Its interest is not confined to Missouri, but is so general that Superintendents of other

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States will profit by its advice. Copies are forwarded to any address, free of charge, on application to Hon. IRA DIVOLL, Jefferson City, Mo.

WESTERN INSURANCE REVIEW. St. Louis: *H. L. Aldrich.* April, 1871. $2.00 a year, in advance.

The facts relating to life, fire, and marine insurance are so intimately associated with our every-day business affairs that a reliable journal, devoted to insurance generally, has come to be of prime necessity to every careful business man. The payment of a money premium to guard against loss, is not infrequently as hazardous as permitting life or property to go without any insurance whatever. This publication is independent and fearless in its exposures of the piracies of insurance men and companies, and is therefore just the publication needed by business men. The mathematics of insurance is claiming much attention, and as the *Review* furnishes promptly full tables and explanations of all new features in insurance computations, it is also valuable to teachers.

The Interior, published weekly by the Western Presbyterian Publishing Co., Chicago, has some most excellent essays on literary, political, and art topics. Its liberal bearing toward persons and publications differing honestly from it in religious convictions, is worthy of imitation by many journals purporting to be published in the interests of Christianity.

Harper's Magazine for May completes its forty-second volume. While other magazines may be superior to it in certain particulars, as a publication peculiarly adapted to American tastes and home-life it has no equal in any country.

Education at Home and Abroad.

ST. LOUIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The regular monthly meeting of the Teachers' Association of this city was held on the 8th ult., at the High School.

Mr. Harris, Superintendent, stated that the National Teachers' Association would be held in this city on the 22d, 23d, and 24th of August. A committee of five persons was appointed to make arrangements for this meeting.

Mr. Harris then spoke of the importance of encouraging reading at home. "The school life of the pupil is a very small arc of the circle of his every-day life. There are about five hours of the twenty-four, for five days in the week and ten months of the year. This is only one-eighth of the whole time, and leaves nearly four times as many waking hours, in which he is not under the eye of the teacher. It is clear that we must attempt in school to impress on the mind of the child such forms of activity as will lead him to use properly his time at home. The phonetic system of teaching reading renders it an easy task for the child to learn how to read in one-half the time formerly needed. It saves an immense amount of time to the child, which, if well employed, will suffice to store his mind with information. In fact, the teacher can contribute a great deal to this end by conversing occasionally with her pupils on the books and papers they have read at home. The sense of the words in the language cannot be acquired from dictionaries so well as by extensive reading. The teacher should guard against recommending too dry books for reading. The books should be so entertaining that the child learns to find his highest pleasure in them."

The subject of corporal punishment was next spoken of by the Superintendent. He thought that teachers did not take pains enough to reduce the number of cases. While he would not be understood as recommending the total disuse of it, yet he thought that it might be almost entirely done away with by proper effort. The teacher had before her always the resource of suspension. An ill-natured pupil can be suspended, and this is the best practical way to deal with him. The parents of ill-natured pupils will almost always take the part of the pupil when whipped, but when he is suspended they are compelled to assist in disciplining him. It is far better to compel these children to run on the streets than to reform them in school at the expense of lowering the temperature of the discipline of the whole school. By the latter alternative scores of parents are deterred from placing their children in the public schools, fearing, as they do, the effect of rough manners and violent means of securing or-

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der. These parents are thus compelled to lose the benefit of educating their children in the healthful intercourse of other children generally. They send them to private schools and paralyze them for life by a hot-house education. fitting them only for living in a caste, but not for free competition with men at large. But experience has shown that by suspending troublesome pupils, all of them can be so put upon their good behaviour as to be reformed entirely."

Mr. Harris conducted a discussion on Primary Teaching among the teachers of the sixth and seventh grades. Some of the teachers stated that it was better to teach the names of the letters in connection with the sounds in reading. Others had tried this method and had not succeeded so well as when they taught the sounds first and the names afterward. Mr. Harris stated that, in teaching arithmetic, pupils ought to be required to construct the tables themselves. Numbers ought to be taught in connection with objects—3 means 3 things.

Mr. Cheney, Principal of the Intermediate School, gave an interesting lecture on the Methods of Teaching Arithmetic.

"To make good arithmeticians two things are necessary—viz., calculation, or the power to combine figures rapidly and accurately; and mathematical logic, or the power by which we apply calculation to mathematical processes. These two operations do not depend upon the same powers of the mind—rapid calculators are not necessarily good arithmeticians; and, on the other hand, many persons who have a clear conception of arithmetical principles are slow and inaccurate in the use of numbers.

"In the development of the growing mind calculation precedes reason—the child can be taught to use numbers before he can comprehend the reasoning process, or the logical connection between them. Hence, the first work in arithmetic should be to drill the child in combining numbers; and, as in business the great demand is for rapid and accurate calculation, this practice should continue all through the arithmetical course. As a means of training the powers of calculation may be mentioned:

"1st. The use of the arithmetical tables—drilling upon them, reviewing them, changing their arrangement, until they are thoroughly comprehended and mastered."

"2d. Impromptu problems given by the teacher and requiring rapid calculation. Children may be called upon to give only results. These exercises awaken considerable interest. I have known instances where they were continued for two or three years, until the pupils could solve examples more rapidly than the teacher. Care should be taken not to make these problems too difficult for the class, otherwise a majority will become indifferent and cease trying, and only a few of the bright pupils will be benefited.

"3d. Concert and class exercises in counting by 2's, 3's, 4's, &c., to 5's, or to 100, thus, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, &c., 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, and 3, 6, 9, 12, &c. This is really making all possible additions within the limit prescribed, and by counting backward in the same manner we have all possible subtractions. We can construct tables with decimal intervals, thus, 5 and 7 are 12, 5 and 17 are 22, 5 and 27 are 32, &c.

"Much practice of this kind should be given to pupils before they commence that work which requires the exercise mainly of the reasoning powers, but it should not stop there.

"When we teach our pupils a logical formula, let us be certain that it is such, and not a mere formula of words without logical connection. We all know that most pupils learn the formulas as words and reproduce them by an effort of memory. If they are all logical the child will gradually acquire a comprehension of their meaning, and will be able to apply the principles involved to all similar problems.

"But the book formulas are not all logical. This is especially true in the first part of the child's course. We find many formulas that are merely a repetition of facts without any deduction from premises. Simple facts, such as 2 and 2 are 4, cannot be reasoned out. To learn a formula that has the language of a reasoning process without any logical relation of facts, only stultifies the mind.

"In written arithmetic we sometimes explain too much and commence too early before the child is prepared to understand the reasoning process.

"Herbert Spencer lays it down as a principle, that, in learning, art precedes science. It is not desirable to explain the mere process in arithmetic until the pupil understands the operation as such. When he has learned *how* to do a thing, he is then prepared to learn *why*. Teach him thoroughly the *how* and he will learn the *why* himself.

"To prepare for a business life, or to lay a foundation for superior mathematical knowledge, pupils must practice constantly in the use of numbers."

In the German department, Mr. Soldan gave instruction to the teachers in regard to the methods of teaching.

He advised them to use "Schreib-Lese Methode" in the seventh grade. "The principal work in German consists in reading and explanation. It is not necessary to teach much grammar."

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"Too much time should not be spent in reading one piece. Only the best selections should be committed to memory.

"The pupils ought to be required to study at home as much as possible."

MISSOURI.—The Superintendent of *Stoddard county* writes: "We have no Teachers' Institute in our county, but I shall make an effort to organize one as soon as practicable. We have but few female teachers; their average salary is $35—males, $40. Bloomfield has a very flourishing select school, with two teachers and some fifty scholars. The great trouble is want of funds. The majority of our people are poor, and the rich ones are generally averse to taxation for school purposes. However, the people are beginning to show more interest in the educational advancement of the county. I think I can organize a Teachers' Institute this year." —*Palmyra, Marion county*, has three flourishing private schools, but no graded public school. An effort is being made to organize one, with every indication of success.—*Daviess county* pays an average monthly salary of $36 to males and $28 to females.—*Maries county* pays an average of $35 a month to teachers. The Superintendent writes: "Our educational affairs are in very poor condition. Part of the county is unorganized; a considerable part of the sixteenth-section lands unsold; swamp-lands not disposed of; and fines and penalties neglected and unpaid."—The Superintendent of *Morgan county* proposes to have a County Normal School for a term of three or four months. Only four teachers in that county hold first grade certificates.—*Adair county* pays its female teachers an average monthly salary of $25.21; male, $35.05.—*Carrollton, Carroll county:* The County Superintendent writes—"The large and commodious building which has recently been erected for our city school is a very fine one. It occupies an elevated site, is four stories high, has ten rooms, each being large enough to accommodate from 60 to 80 scholars with comfort. The rooms are well ventilated and furnished with school apparatus, all well arranged. The school opened on the first Monday in February, and is now in full operation under the supervision of Mr. O. Root, Jr., who is an accomplished scholar; Mr. Cauthron, of Columbia; and a splendid mathematician, has charge of the higher mathematical departments. There are eight subordinate teachers, all of whom are well qualified for their respective positions. There are now 515 pupils. Mr. Root and all the teachers are live, energetic workers—and they comprise a literary corps, which would be a valuable acquisition to any community. The directors are all intelligent, substantial, and high-minded men, and if they can, as the school progresses, raise money enough to pay all incidental expenses which must, or will, necessarily accrue, the enterprise must prove a glorious success, culminating in not only the general advancement of education in the county, but also to its pecuniary interest."—Sup't. Brown, of the Hannibal Public Schools, publishes monthly a "Roll of Honor" in the *Courier* of that city.—*Henry county* has built thirty-five school-houses during the last two years. Teachers are paid an average of $40 a month. The sessions are generally of five months. The people announce that a new court-house will not be built until the county is fully supplied with good school buildings. Good!—*Osage county*—"Our institute was attended by quite as many teachers as were present at former sessions. Many of our teachers are indeed alive to the work, and intend during the summer months to form a class for the especial purpose of "Learning how to teach," and in this way employ the otherwise leisure time that generally comes between the close of one scholastic year and the opening of the next. I shall be present and lend my might to prosecute the labor.—HENRY MARQUAND, *Sup't.*"—*Johnson county*—The institute was attended by 96 teachers.—*Linn county* has 100 school districts, all of which have good school buildings. Teachers are paid from $25 to $85 a month in the country schools, and from $100 to $125 in the larger towns. There is a slight discrimination in favor of male teachers in the payment of salaries. Brookfield, Linneus, and Laclede have first-class schools. The building at Brookfield is one of the finest in the state. The institute in April was attended by 116 teachers.—*Ralls county* has about 60 public schools, generally in good condition. Good teachers are paid $50 to $60 a month. The teachers' institute, held during the last week in March, was well attended.—*Pettis county*—The teachers' institute will meet at Sedalia, May 9th, and continue in session five days. A very attractive programme is published. Good work should be done.—*Jefferson county*—Mr. E. A. Angell has assumed the principalship of the academy at Irondale. A normal class has been formed. Mr. Angell is a competent teacher, and his academy will be, doubtless, well attended.—*Clinton county*—The teachers' institute will meet at Plattsburg, August 22nd.

IOWA.—Northern Iowa lacks facilities for normal school instruction. Many of the counties are therefore moving for normal institutes to be held during the spring months. One of these will begin at Cedar Falls on the 3d of April, and con-

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tinue one month, under the supervision of Mr. Jerome Allen, assisted by Mrs. Randall, of Oswego, N.Y., as teacher of elocution and reading, and Mr. Bunn, of Cedar Falls, as teacher of vocal music. The economical arrangement of these institutes is such that the whole expense of tuition, board, room and lights, will not exceed $15. The County and City Superintendents' Association of Northern Iowa is fully organized, and has adopted a standard of qualification for admission to the high schools within its limits, which standard is also adopted by the county superintendents as the minimum qualification upon which teachers' certificates will be granted; thus arriving at a virtual uniformity, both in admission to the high schools and to the position of a teacher in the district school. Many of the counties hold bi-weekly township meetings, in which the teachers converse together and discuss modes of instruction, government, and branches of study, to much profit. Iowa has lost three union, and several district school-houses by fire during the past winter. The loss in this way, after deducting insurance, is not less than $60,000. The State Teachers' Association keeps two teachers, of long experience in the school-room, constantly ready to attend and conduct institutes at any point in the State.—"*Pottawatomie* is the largest county in Iowa, extending from the Missouri river east 48 miles, and is 25 miles wide. In all this territory there are 70 school-houses, excluding those in the city of Council Bluffs. Twenty per cent of these houses have been built during the last twelve months, and an equal number will be built during the coming season. The salary of county teachers average about $43 in winter, and about $40 in summer; no distinction as to sex, except in one township—competency, not sex, being taken into account. Several townships pay $50 per month to first-class teachers. As is well known, five days constitute the school week, and four weeks the school month, in Iowa; this gives teachers a little time for self-culture; accordingly the teachers in two or three townships have formed an organization, and meet on the first and third Saturdays of each month. Their meetings are conducted in all respects like teachers' institutes. The interest in these meetings does not flag, but increases, and much good results from it. In visiting schools it is my custom to invite teachers to close their schools and accompany me in my visits to other schools. This has done much towards promoting good feeling among teachers, and in arousing them to greater efforts. Connected with the schools of Council Bluffs are 23 teachers, headed by Mr. Allen Armstrong. The High School building, erected at a cost of $35,000, is an ornament to the city. From its elevated position may be seen the valley of the Missouri, and contiguous bluffs in Nebraska and Iowa. The schools are the pride of the citizens. The course of study is thorough—the design being to fit the graduates for entering college. The salary of the superintendent is $1,740; that of the two principals of grammar schools respectively $1,100 and $1,000. The female teachers receive from $450 to $700 per year. To D. C. Bloomer, former mayor, more than to any other man, is credit due for our excellent schools. G. S. JACOBS, Superintendent."—*Union county* is comparatively new, but has developed wonderfully—already having about 70 schools in operation. It has no incorporated or endowed institution of learning, but has an excellent graded school at the county seat, with five teachers. Township institutes were held during the winter with gratifying results.—The superintendent of *Wapello county* writes: "Our average salary for teachers is about $35 per month. Our schools are injured by being so economical (?) in employing teachers. Good teachers leave us for better locations. I wish I could make boards of directors feel that a good teacher is cheaper at $50 per month than a poor one at $20. We have in our county 105 schools; 8,400 persons of school age; 6,200 pupils attending school; 2,200 growing up in ignorance, *for whose education there must be legislation.*"—*Buena Vista county* was almost entirely unoccupied prairie until within two years. The Dubuque and Sioux City Railroad was completed in July last, and runs through this county from east to west, and emigration has followed its completion till we now count about 2,000 inhabitants. The county is divided into seven townships; these are divided into sub-districts, so that we now have about 25 schools this season. Last winter we had 20 schools in session for three months. Within a year there have been eight new school-houses built, and there are now under contract, and to be finished by July 1st, next, 16 more; all to be good frame buildings and costing from $1,000 to $1,800 each. The voters in every township, at the spring elections held in March, voted to levy a tax of ten mills on the dollar on all the property of the county for building school houses, and the several boards of directors have assessed about the same amount for teachers' wages. Teachers' wages for this summer will be about $35 a month. In December last we held a teachers' institute six days, which was well attended, every teacher in the county being present.—J. D. ADAMS,

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ILLINOIS.—*Vermillion county* has 180 schools, employing 215 teachers; highest monthly salary, $133.33; lowest, $20.—*Clinton county* pays from $40 to $125 per month; the county superintendent writes that teachers are paid about what they are worth, without regard to sex; and that good teachers from other counties will be welcomed. "No poor ones need apply," they have too many already.—*Greene county* has 97 schools; 61 are are taught by males at an average salary of $56 a month, and 36 by females at an average of $42 a month. Carrollton, the county seat, has completed a public school building at a cost of $40,000. Eight teachers are employed, and 447 pupils are in attendance.—The superintendent of *Cumberland county* writes that the progress of the schools throughout his county is very satisfactory.—*Adams county* has 180 school districts, and employs 324 teachers; 151 males, and 163 females. Highest monthly salary paid any male teacher, $150; highest paid any female teacher, $55; average monthly salary, $42.34. Total expenditures for school purposes for year ending July 31, '70, $105,207.97. Total value of school property, $562,452.52. Whole number of children of school age, 20,430. Total number attending school, 12,450. Number of graded schools in county, 16. The last session of the County Institute was held at the Quincy College building in December last; about 100 teachers were present.—"*Knox county* schools are steadily and healthfully improving. During my time of service as county superintendent, I have endeavored to raise the standard of teachers, good results of which are now being felt, and most generally acknowledged, the proper means by which to elevate the character and standing of our common schools."—F. CHRISTIAN, *Sup't.*—*Richland county* has 87 school districts. The highest monthly wages paid to any male teacher last year was $150; lowest, $25. Many good teachers receive $50 per month in the country schools. The highest monthly wages paid female teachers was $50. Good teachers will be wanted next fall. The greater number of the school-houses are good and comfortable Olney, the county town, has a school building which cost $45,000. Twelve teachers are employed. It is one of the most successfully managed schools in the state. The county superintendent has graded the country schools, and finds that it works like a charm in every instance.—*Madison county* has 127 districts, and employs 185 teachers. The school-houses are mostly new. Teachers are paid from $25 to $75 a month. Edwardsville has a large graded school, employing seven teachers, under the principalship of H. H. Keebler, who receives $1,500 a year. His assistants are paid from $400 to $800. Alton employs 20 teachers in its schools. The superintendent, E. A. Haight, is paid $1,800 a year; the assistants, $350 to $800; 1,100 pupils are in attendance. Collinsville is also well provided. J. M. Stevenson is the principal; he has five assistants.

NEW JERSEY.—"Two propositions are now before the State Legislature which, if adopted, will be followed by most important and beneficent results. One is embodied in a bill to establish a free school system, modeled after those of more advanced States, in which education is within the reach of all. The other proposition contemplates the establishment of a free High School in every county of the State, to be supported out of the moneys received from the sale and lease of the State's right to land under water. The fund now amounts, it is said, to over two millions of dollars, and is constantly increasing, as the submerged lands on the Hudson shore and at other points are taken up by purchasers at the rate of fifty dollars per lineal foot, or leased at the annual rent of five dollars per foot. It is believed that while the establishment of free common schools is the first duty of the State, the inauguration at the same time of a system of classical schools, devoted to more advanced and liberal culture, and in which young men could, without expense, be thoroughly prepared for college, is hardly less important to the complete success of any comprehensive educational development. Whether the measure will receive the sanction of those to whom in has been submitted, and with whom it rests to give a final determination, is yet to be seen; but the fact that it is seriously considered is a significant indication of progress in the right direction, in a quarter from which we have been accustomed to expect but little. The bill to establish a free school system has already passed the lower branch of the legislature, and will no doubt be equally fortunate in the other house."—*N. Y. Mail.*

NEW YORK CITY.—A report submitted by City Superintendent Kiddle shows that the number of free evening schools open during the past winter was 30; 27 for white, and three for colored children. The whole number of pupils on the register was 9,606. Mr. Kiddle also stated that, while he was of the opinion that the evening schools have done a very useful and important work, he thought that they needed to be much better classified than they have been, to accomplish all that should be expected of them; and that the teachers should be

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governed with more spirit and energy so as to render the attendance of the pupils less irksome than was evidently the case in most of the schools during the past term. The attendance at the close of the term amounted in the aggregate to 7,234, which would indicate a desirability of continuing these schools in future a few weeks longer; at any rate until March 1.

KANSAS.—The *Educational Journal* has passed into the hands of Mr. Banfield, of Topeka, and Mr. Dilworth, of Emporia, gentlemen of experience as teachers, who will, we think, use unwearied effort to make their *Journal* of real use.—*Brown county*, with a population of 10,000, has 52 organized school districts, with school-houses valued at from $100 to $6,000 each. The salary of teachers for the last year has been from $25 to $75 per month. The majority of teachers in the county are females. -R. C. CHASE, *Sup't.*

KENTUCKY.—The question of vital interest to parents, teachers, and pupils, as to whether the public schools of Louisville should continue in session from 8:30 o'clock A.M. until 12 M., and from 2 P.M. until 4:30 P.M., after much discussion *pro* and *con*, with the assistance of scientific medical examination, has been at last wisely submitted to a vote of the parents themselves. According to the above division, children were confined to the school-room on an aggregate of six hours per day. The object of those who interested themselves in putting a stop to this "murder of the innocents," was to substitute a single session per day alone, of five hours, from 9 to 2. This democratic way of deciding the issue was voted upon on Tuesday last, when the friends of one session carried the day by a majority of 1,728.

WASHINGTON, D. C.—The Commissioner of Education is preparing for publication a pamphlet from a synopsis of the laws affecting education in the different states and territories. He has received he laws from twenty-eight of the states and most of the territories, and when all have been received a very interesting and instructive digest, classified under different heads, will be made up. This will be widely disseminated and will be of much value, as it will present in a small compass all the best educational features adopted by the different states.

TEXAS.—The legislature has just adopted a common school system for that state, in which compulsory education is a prominent feature. A term of schooling not less than four months in each year is required of "all the scholastic population." The school directors of the several districts may separate the whites and blacks if, in their judgment, "the peace and success of the school and the good of the whole may require," or they may require the attendance of the whites and blacks in the same school.

VIRGINIA.—The free-school idea is making encouraging progress in Virginia. There are now more than 2,000 of these schools and more are springing up. Thousands of colored children are without schools for the want of teachers, and applications for them are pouring in from all quarters. No sign could afford greater encouragement of a prosperous future for Virginia than is embodied in these facts.

RHODE ISLAND.—This state has re-organized its Normal School. The legislature grants the sum of $10,000 annually for its support. A bill has also passed, equalizing the advantages of the school. Certain mileage is allowed to all pupils resident from the school in excess of five miles from its location, for the purpose of paying traveling expenses; the amount granted to any one pupil not to exceed ten dollars for each school term.

Compulsory education, it appears, is meeting with some resistance in Scotland. One of the members of a school board was recently discussing the question with an elector of a Scotch town, who addressed him as follows: "An' that's gospel, is't?—that ye knabb'ry 's gaun te eddicatt my bairns whuther I wull or no?" The member proceeded to explain. "Weel, I'll jist tell ye; ye say they're to be eddicatt, I say they're no, an' they sanna. I'll droon them first!"

A convention of the German teachers of th United States is to be held in Cincinnati during the first week of August next. Teachers are expected from all parts of the Union, in number about 500. This is the second convention of the kind, the first having been held at Louisville last year.

Stephen Colwell, who died at Weymouth, N. J., a few weeks ago, bequeathed an exceedingly valuable library of 5,000 volumes to the University of Pennsylvania. He gave to the same institution $5,000 for the Professorship of Social Science. The will also gives to the College of New Jersey, Princeton, $30,000, provided that a chair of political economy be founded under certain provisions which he has made.

MICHIGAN.—A compulsory education bill has passed the lower branch of the General Assembly.

The largest number of books taken from the Boston Public Library in any one day is 1,856.

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OF

MR. O. H. FETHERS:

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

The public reading of Ogden Hoffman Fethers, on New Year's night, for the benefit of the Young Men's Christian Association, was one of the finest treats our people have enjoyed for many days. Mr. Fethers has a voice of remarkable compass and flexibility, and can go through with all the changes of passion, mirth, or pathos, in a manner that makes one FEEL what he reads. His rendering of Poe's poem of "The Bells" was magnificent; he made all cry with his "Will the New Year come to-night, mamma?" and he strained whalebones fearfully with Sam Weller's "Walentine" and Sam Johnson's "Rat-tan Terrier." We wish we had space to speak of him further, but we can only say in general terms, that he is by far the most pleasing and accomplished elocutionist we have ever heard in our city.—[Indianapolis Daily Journal.

Last night the Grand Avenue Baptist Church was filled to overflowing with an intelligent and appreciative audience, who assembled to hear the gifted young elocutionist, Mr. O. H. Fethers. The audience was highly entertained by the recitations given, and unstinted applause frequently testified their warm approbation of the efforts of the talented gentleman. In pathos and humor Mr. Fethers shows equal ability. "Paul Dombey's death," from Dickens, was read in a style that could hardly be excelled, and subdued many to tears. In his humorous pieces the reader was excessively funny, and his comical delineations elicited the utmost merriment. All present were greatly pleased, and whenever the gentleman chooses to give us the pleasure of another similar entertainment he will again have a crowded hall.—[Kansas City Daily Bulletin.

Mr. Fethers is a host. His recital of "The Bells" was marvellous. The tinkling of the merry sleigh bells was beautifully imitated, but when he depicted the hoarse alarm bells, his voice rising, swelling, vibrating throughout the house, it was grand, almost awful. Truly, there is magic in his voice. "Will the New Year come to-night, mamma?" was very touching, and delineated so truly as to be really painful. His "Lord Lovel" was funnier than any Lord Lovel we ever heard. He labors in a good cause, and we bid him God speed. May his success be such as his talents deserve. —[Hannibal Daily Courier.

Mr. Fethers excels by far any elocutionist that has heretofore visited our city.—[St. Joseph Daily Herald.

Mr. Fethers is at the head of his profession in the West.—[Leavenworth Daily Times.

Mr. Fethers held the large audience spell-bound and charmed.—[St. Louis Democrat.

Mr. Fethers was in excellent voice, and read in his usual elegant and artistic manner. The first selection was his master-piece "The Bells." No one can form anything like an adequate notion of his marvellous rendition without hearing it. The compass, strength, and purity of voice exhibited was wonderful. The hearer can scarcely believe that it is a human voice, and not the ringing of "silver sleigh bells" on the night air; the mellow, full, rich tones of the "wedding bells;" the wild alarm of "fire bells," and the weird, awe-inspiring tolling of the "funeral bells." "The Famine," "The Grave by the Lake," "Deacon Stokes," and selections from Dickens' "Christmas Carol," comprised the remainder of the readings. The reading of "Christmas Carol" exhibited his remarkable power of delineation of character in the hard, grinding, old Scrooge, the Christmas dinner of Bob Cratchit, and the awakening of Scrooge to a new life. Never before have we heard the pathos and humor of Dickens so admirably presented. Laughter and tears alternated throughout its rendition.—[Cincinnati Daily Commercial.

A finer elocutionary effort it has never been our lot to witness. "The Famine," as recited by him, drew the interest of the audience with painful intensity, and Sam Weller's "Walentine" could not have been rendered with finer effect, for there the identical son, with his discriminating father, stood before you with all their marked characteristics. "Youthful Oratory" was excessively comic, and the "Death of Little Paul" was made so vividly touching as to draw tears from every eye. As an elocutionist and delineator, we hold that Mr. Fethers is scarcely excelled by Mr. Murdoch.—[Leavenworth Daily Commercial.

TALENT APPRECIATED.—"Charming," "wonderful," "an artist," "a greater imitator than Gough," "never heard such bells rung by a human voice," "what a splendid entertainment," were some of the expressions heard in the audience at the close of Mr. Fethers' readings.—[St. Louis Republican.

Mr. Fethers is an elocutionist of superior merit, and elicited great applause and universal admiration from the audience in attendance. He is particularly excellent in humor; is not coarse, but refined and elegant. He is entirely devoid of affectation or assumption, but his elocution is a simple adequate delivery of thought.—[Columbia (Mo.) Herald.

Mr. Fethers has a voice of remarkable flexibility and compass. As a reader of humorous pieces he has few equals. We do not care to hear any one who reads them better.—[Central Christian Advocate.

In some respects Mr. Fethers excels Murdoch and other kings of elocution.—[St. Joseph Daily Union.

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THE WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

June, 1871.

J. L. Giles, Del.

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THE

Western Educational Review.

AN ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE OF

EDUCATION,

SCIENCE AND

LITERATURE,

A Larger Circulation than any other Educational Magazine in the West or South.

CONDUCTED BY

THOMAS DAVIDSON,

O. H. FETHERS,

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1871, Aug. 5.

THE WESTERN

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

JUNE, 1871.

NATURE TEACHING.

III.

It remains to speak of inorganic nature. You will have no trouble in obtaining minerals, for every hill-side and gravel-bed will furnish you with more than your lessons can exhaust. Do not be discouraged if nearly all you find are either limestone or quartz. Your variety will increase as you become more accustomed to distinguishing them. Let me give you an example of the method of using such objects, practised by the lamented Josiah Holbrook, who was one of the first to urge their use in the school-room: "Trusting to the power of attraction and development latent within a stone (picked up by the way-side), he would enter a school, with no other apparatus of instruction provided, and, holding up the familiar object, would succeed, by means of a few simple, but skillfully-put questions, in creating an earnest desire in his young audience to be permitted to look more closely at the object. He would then hand it to them, and have it passed from one to another. Having thus secured the preliminary advantage of *earnest attention*, his next step would be, by a few more brief questions, to lead his little class to a *close* and *careful examination* of the specimen submitted to their notice; and, to their surprise and delight, to enable them to see that the bit of granite in their hands,—although but one stone to the eye, at first sight,—actually contained portions of three different kinds of rock. He would then give his pupils an unpretending, but thoroughly effective exercise in *analysis*, by inducing them to point out distinctly each component element apart, and to describe, at the moment of doing so, its points of difference from the others, by which the eye might recognize and the mind distinguish it.

"Another stage in the well-planned lessons of this true teacher would lead to a still closer *inspection* of the component elements in the object of observation, by the presentation of separate specimens of each, in comparison with the smaller portions of them perceptible in the stone. The transparency of the *mica*, its laminated form, its beauty to the eye, would all come up in turn, for due notice and remark; nor would its peculiar adaptation to several of the uses and conveniences of life be over-looked. The *quartz* element, with its beautiful crystalline aspect and forms, its value as a gem, its wide diffusion in the granular condition, its presence and its effects in the composition of rocks and soils,—all briefly exemplified and enumerated, would form a copious subject of instruction and delight. The *feldspar*, too, with

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its creamy tint and block-like configuration, and its valuable uses in the hands of the potter and the dentist, would come in for its share of delighted attention and studious observation."

Here was the true office of instruction faithfully exemplified. Here was genuine mental activity on the part of the pupil; and here were its natural effects: vigorous, healthy expansion and development, together with the pure, natural and salutary pleasure of intellectual exercise, more dear to the child than even his favorite play. Here, too, were effectually secured the moral influences of culture, docility, order, regularity, voluntary attention and application, gratitude to the instructor for personal favor and benefit consciously received, an earnest desire implanted for the true and enduring pleasures which spring from knowledge, and the first steps taken in the life-long pursuit of science. The teacher, having put himself into a true living relation to the mental constitution of the pupils, could, without delaying for formal calls to order or attention, proceed, at once, to the benign office of his vocation, as the guide of the young mind. By a wise, preventive method,—not by an authority, rule, or penalty,—he secured the devoted attention and good order of his pupils, and, not less, their own happiness, their sympathy with him, at the moment, and their habitual reverence for him as the living source of knowledge.

After one lesson, such as has been described, the substantial, durable effect resulting from it was usually perceptible in the fact that, on the dismission of the school, the juvenile members of Mr. Holbrook's audience would be found resorting to whatever place they thought likely to furnish them with specimens such as he had exhibited in his lesson. This was almost universally the case when the lessons happened to be given in a rural region where objects of the kind in question were easily obtained. But, not less zeal for collecting specimens for juvenile cabinets would sometimes be manifested in the more confined sphere of city-life, an instance of which it would be difficult for the writer to forget.

An eager group of little collectors were scrambling for specimens around the temporary shed of the stone-masons occupied in the erection of a public building. They were busily replenishing their pockets with such pieces as struck their fancy, and stopping now and then to compare specimens, or each to examine his own more closely. Drawing near to the juvenile company of geologists, as their heads were clubbed together in earnest inspection of a specimen, the observer heard one exclaim: "Well, I do not think it is the right kind. For, you know, Mr. Holbrook said the way to spell granite was not *g-r-a-n-i-t-e*, but '*mica, quartz* and *feldspar*.' Now, there is not a bit of mica in any of these stones." The observer happened to know of Mr. Holbrook's visits to the school to which the boys belonged; and as he saw that the little students had just found their way to the exact spot in investigation where Mr. H. would be glad to meet them, so as, by means of a little closer analysis, to enable them to detect the difference between granite and *sienite*, he relieved their anxiety by telling them that they had better not throw away the pieces they had picked up, but carry them to the school-room next morning, and ask Mr. Holbrook to tell them why there was no mica in their specimens, and what those black specks were. One of the little explorers returned to his home on the following day, to tell, with a face all radiant with intelligence, about the quarries of Syene (in Egypt), the quarries of Quincy, and those of the *Granite*

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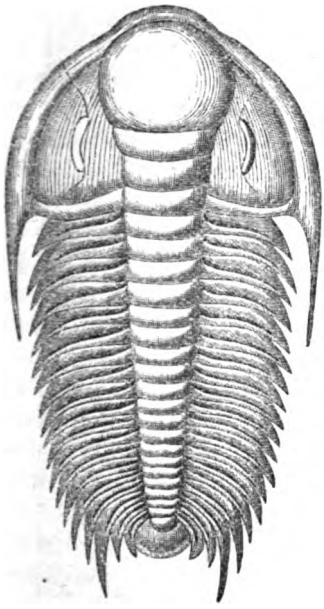
State, and even to go into some details, in which neither of his parents was sufficiently versed in science to follow him satisfactorily.

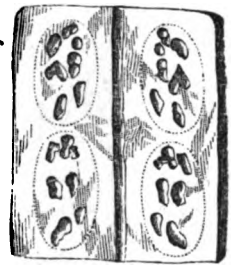
Such was this instructor's method of using minerals. Fossils are even more full of meaning. Take one that you may chance to find in the sand-stone region. It is a *Trilobite.* What can be

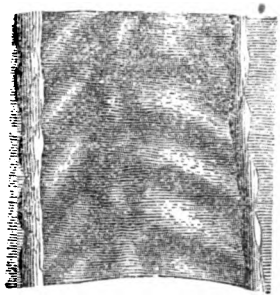


The Trilobite.

more suggestive than to lay open the solid coffin in which the little crustacean has lain for a hundred thousand years. It is doubly interesting for coming from this sand-stone, which is the oldest rock that bears any trace of life. It was, perhaps, the first form of life that the Almighty fiat called into existence in the shoreless ocean that then covered the Valley of the Mississippi. Yet the beautiful structure of its prominent motionless eyes, with their hundreds of facets looking in all directions at once, is equal to anything in later creations. God's first work was perfect of its kind.

And here in this coal region of a later age you will find abundant specimens of the forms that grew at a most interesting period of the earth's history. You will find pieces of coal and of the rock that is thrown up with it, covered with the remains of both plants. These strange reeds and ferns are often most curiously marked, and will repay attention. Stems of coal plants, by their beauty as well as by what they tell us of a time when the earth's appearance and condition was so very different from the present, are fraught with deep interest.





Stems of Coal Plants.

But I must not further illustrate my subject, and I need suggest nothing more to you. You will find the material press itself upon you, if you but fairly begin this work. One of Dana's admirable works on geology will furnish you the assistance you need in this department.

Does that which I have spoken seem too difficult to any one? I know that you are hard worked and poorly paid, and that your time is precious, and that you will have many difficulties to encounter; but if you are willing to work and study, you can, each one of you, accomplish very much, and I assure you that you will be paid for it as you go along, in the pleasure that the communion with nature will give you, and still more by the delight and improvement of your scholars.

Do not forget in your teaching that true science is always exact and conscientious, never reporting as *observed*

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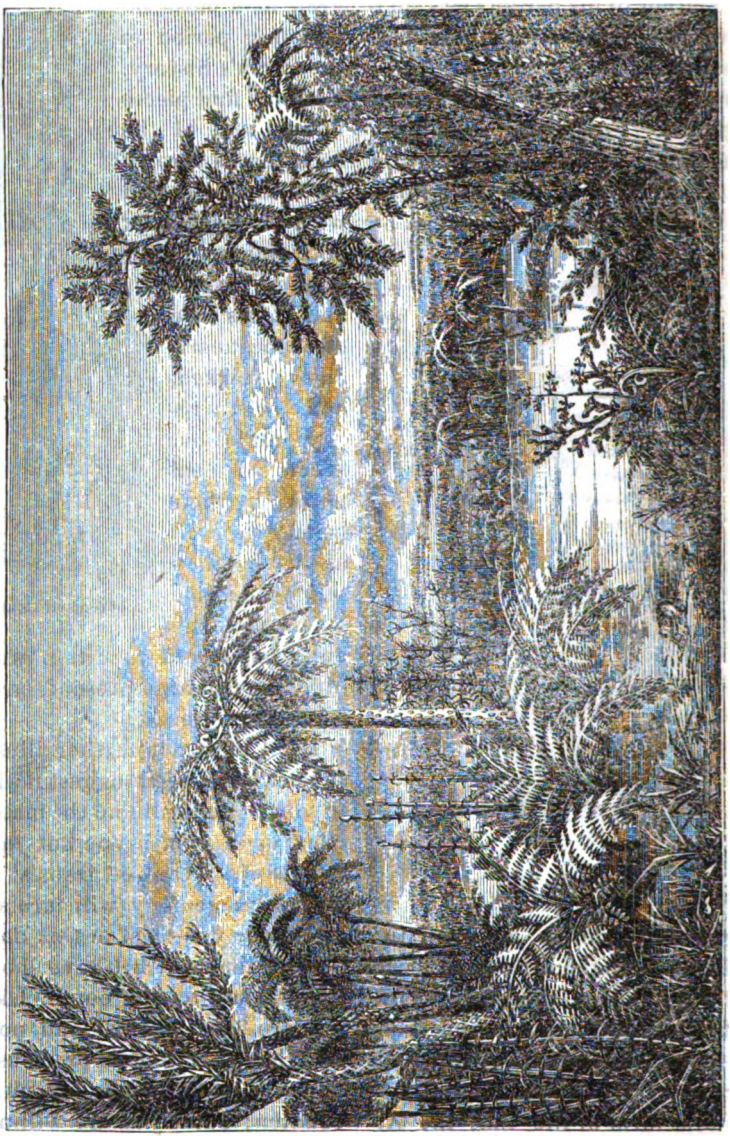

Vegetation of Coal Period.

that which is only *supposed*. Teach only that which you yourself have seen, or for which you have the best authority. Beware of mistakes similar to that of a lady, who brought from the East a high reputation as an educator, who told her scholars that doves must belong to the class of *mammalia*. The proof of which extraordinary statement was that our best writers use the expression *"a sucking dove."*

A portion of your teaching of nature should be given in oral lessons to the whole school, much of it in connection with geography. For what is a knowledge of geography but an intimate acquaintance, first, in our own locality, with the earth, its productions and inhab-

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itants, and an extension of the knowledge from that foundation to the more important characteristics of other lands. It is only when geography is thus taught that it will cease to be that useless waste of time in mechanical memorizing that so much of it now is, and become, as it should be, the most inspiring, suggestive, and interesting of studies.

One caution more. Let the articles which you keep on your school-room shelves and show to children, be those that illustrate something worth knowing, not those that merely gratify a vain curiosity. We have, in museums in this country, too many specimens of the club that killed Capt. Cook, and too many pieces of John Brown's gallows. Mr. Jaeger tells of a visit which he paid to a college of considerable pretension, and, among other things, the president took him to see their collection. It consisted of several articles of about equal value, which Mr. Jaeger enumerates. I have forgotten them all except one. This was a pair of black satin breeches that were conspicuously suspended upon the wall. "These," said the president, "are the identical breeches that I wore when I was presented to the Queen of England. We keep them here to show the young men to what a man may attain!" But this was some time ago, and I trust that our institutions have now made some steps in advance.

Fellow-Teachers, shall not practical instruction, and illustration of nature be made a prominent part of our work in schools of every grade! I am sure that it will be, if you consider but a few of the advantages that would result therefrom. An important part of our work is to develop the perceptive faculties, and it is only by the observation of nature that this can be most fully accomplished. It is yours to so train the *child*, that the *man* shall all his life be instructed and delighted by the wonders and beauty that surround him—yours to change the life of him that is to dwell in the country, from one of drudgery to one of intelligent, enlivened, and successful labor. While you teach science, you will also, perhaps unconsciously, cultivate taste and all the finer faculties, so that your pupil will be prepared to enjoy both nature and art. He will go through the fields like the character delineated by Curtis, contentedly saying: "These are my estates. To be sure the dirt and the fences are Brown's, but the beauty is mine."

The study of the sciences is one of the best methods of cultivating the reasoning power, because it teaches us to think practically and carefully, as must be done in after-life in this practical world. Above all, nature is continually pointing upward toward Him who contrived and sustains it, and tending to draw the soul into communion with Him, and to seek from His Word that knowledge of Him which nature alone cannot supply.

E. F. HOBART.

THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

Every teacher of history must have met with much discouragement in the unsatisfactory and really unprofitable results of his work; and in this, as in other perplexities of his profession, he wonders much, in view of the effort he has expended, at the poor results attained, and makes most zealous appeals to his patience and common sense for assistance. He hears upon all sides the censure of wise fathers—

"Who laugh to scorn the wisdom of the schools,"

which do not send out into the world more thorough, critical readers than

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formerly, and who even assert the superiority of the taste of other times, when books and schools were few. While his own observation may confirm much that is true in these assertions, he is not ready to admit that the schools have a pernicious effect upon the tastes of readers. He is only satisfied that enough is not done; and while he may have a glimmering consciousness of the trouble, he feels utterly unable to obviate it. Young men go from our schools with a very meagre outline of the study —yet they have a most comfortable assurance that a good education could not well demand more than they have acquired. Either this is the cause of subsequent neglect, or else it is because history has become distasteful to them through wrong methods of study pursued in school.

The worth of this most useful work must be apparent to every one who thinks. Reasoning, imagination, language, and judgment, are all cultivated by it, and he who denies that it is indispensable to high culture, cannot himself be regarded as its exponent. Let us then inquire what is the cause, and, knowing that, what is the relief for the alleged indifference of the present generation to history in its various departments. Undoubtedly the amount and kind of periodical and fictitious literature detract much from an elevated, cultivated taste, which otherwise might exist. People are mentally lazy by nature. It requires an effort, in many a severe effort, to form correct habits of reading and study. As long as people are content to dwarf and cramp themselves with the frivolous and worthless rubbish which fills our book-stores, so long will students of History or anything else be few. It is then apparent that we have this to contend against which our fathers had not; though it may still be a matter of doubt whether, on the whole, the modern reader of select periodicals is not far in advance of the earlier students of Rollin or Josephus. Without taking into account the foregoing causes of degeneracy of taste, let us inquire wherein our schools fail in fulfilling the expectations of all concerned, in either mastering the special topics of the book, or correcting their after-habits. Three probable causes may be adduced, viz:—

1st. Unwise disposition of studies.

2d. Poor text-books.

3d. Improper methods of the teachers.

Should the present system of instruction seem insufficient to raise the present lamentable lack of historical taste to a higher standard, it would be marvelous indeed if each of the three parties implied above should not try to throw the responsibility of the fault upon the other two. The officers who control the disposition of studies would have it appear that they are forced by the demands of the parent not to crowd out his child's mathematics; they might insist too that the plan of study is chiefly made by the advice and assistance of their teachers. The book-maker yields of course to the popular demand, and, as long as his book sells, he will put together facts, sometimes something else, often in an illogical and uninteresting form, and pass them over to us, the sufferers. The teacher, considered by many a tool in the hands of all three—parent, board, and book-maker—unwisely urges that he has no responsibility in the matter beyond getting the required per cent. in the given time, which he often does at the risk of destroying whatever natural love for the study the pupil may have had.

To designate just what studies should be taken in schools and when, constitutes an important function of the school officer; and the work is as difficult as it is important. To know how

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much to resist the strong pressure for a positively utilitarian course, and how far to carry the system of laying the groundwork for a strong superstructure, are questions which educators are constantly called upon to decide. These conflicting opinions must be met, and, if possible, harmonized. A careful arrangement of studies may be made, that will suit the wants of those pupils whose course of study is brief, and at the same time form a basis for more interior study than the school will allow. That the end of the study under consideration is not the mere acquisition of facts and dates, cannot be maintained for any class of students. The results to be reached are two-fold—1st. To awaken a love for the study and an interest for general reading; 2nd. To develop, as far as possible, ideas of the causes which have governed and do govern the actions of nations and individuals. Is the present arrangement of studies best suited to bring out these results? Regarding the natural laws of proceeding from the simple to the complex, and from the known to the unknown, how can we be reconciled to the sudden jump into the multitudinous details of discoveries, colonizations, and wars, which the pupil makes in number one of the grammar school. Is it any wonder that scholars are discouraged and demoralized by the burdens which they are so suddenly called upon to bear, and for which they are not at all prepared by previous elementary instruction. Up to the time that they open their histories, questions and answers have been presented to them. They have given little attention to language or the analysis of an author's thought. Yet they are expected to commit and digest from two to five pages daily. The poor victims are scolded and punished for their remarkable dulness in not comprehending and expressing the ideas presented to them. Who can wonder at their subsequent disgust for a study which is so irksome and cheerless, while yet the novelty of a new study has not passed away. We cannot too strictly observe the truism,

"Things ill begun strengthen themselves in ill."

Let us use a little more discretion in the early portion of the child's study in school, and we shall have less need of the dangerous urging in the higher rooms. Let not geography and history be separated in their elementary parts, and let one be as much a required study as the other. To the pupil properly trained in the primary department, the study of history will be such a delight, that little urging will be necessary afterward even for the least attractive portions. At present he has little true conception of all that he studies, when in the multiplicity of studies he goes over in detail an eventful record of two centuries in six months.

There are other important points worthy of the attention of those by whom the course of study is fixed. There will be but space here for one, which cannot be too strongly urged—and that is to make promotions depend upon the general interest and requisition of general facts, rather than, as now, upon a knowledge of the letter of the textbooks. Emulation among pupils must ever be considered a doubtful motive, but how shall we regard it among teachers, who feel bound to cramp their scholars to the written text, to the exclusion of proper instruction, in order that their per cent. marks may be as high as in other schools.

Popularity of a school or teacher may be very desirable, but when it compromises the mental health and strength of the children, it is time to make for the rule of action other incentives than that of trying to reach a high per cent. in too short a time. It may be said with truth

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that good teachers would rather sacrifice their ambition in this direction than the best interests of their pupils. Yet the fact that this is a common error, and one which requires so great a sacrifice to resist, ought to suggest some such change as is indicated above. Such is the injury and frequency of the almost total exclusion of outside knowledge or proper explanations, that generally it may be said, in such studies as history, the best teachers often have the lowest per cents., and *vice versa*.

The matter of text-books and methods must be reserved for another time.

J. T. PRINCE.

THE MAIDEN'S LOVE-SPELL.

[*From the Greek of Theocritus.*]

Hasten to bring me the draught—where, Thestylis, where are the laurels?
Help to encircle the cup with the crimson'd fleece of a lambkin,
That I may weave the charm for him who has cruelly left me—
Left me for twelve long days to pine in sorrow and sadness—
Nor at my door did he knock to know of my living or dying.
Surely, oh Kypris,* thou changest his mind and bidst him forget me!
But to-morrow I go to Tymagétos' palæstra,†
Him to see and to chide who thus doth wrongfully slight me,
Whom with an incense-spell I now do devote:—Oh Selene,‡
Shed thy silvery light on my charm,—I call on thee low-voiced,
And, from the nether world, from whom dogs, crouching and whining
Shrink, as thou glidst through the vaults of the dead and the gore of the victim;
Terrible Hecaté, hail! thy aid to the last do thou proffer,
Let thy poison be strong as the charm of the beautiful Circé,
Strong as the powerful spell of the dire enchantress Medeia!

Spinning Iynx,‖ oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Hasten to sprinkle the flour in the flame, oh Thestylis, hie thee!
Fearless, feeding apace—art flighty-witted, or foully
Trifling, alas! thou, too?—Ah me; now nobody loves me!—
Strew thou and say these words: "I scatter the limbs of false Delphis."

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Delphis preys on my heart; this laurel burn I for Delphis!
Crackling ablaze as the withering wreath in the fire now is wasted,
All of a sudden consumed, no dust is seen of the ashes:
Thus may a secret fire consume the limbs of my Delphis!

---

* Venus.

† The Syracusan's "Turners'-Hall," kept by one Tymagétos.

‡ The moon.

‖ The magic top or spindle; pr. "I-ynx."

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Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
As I am wasting this image of wax with thine aid, oh my goddess!
Thus by Love's fierce torch may melt the Myndian, Delphis,
And as the brazen spindle is turned, by divine Aphrodite
Thus may he be turned to our door, the rounds as he wanders.

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to our house the beloved one!
Now I burn the bran in a fume. Oh Artemis, may'st thou
Move, whoe'er unconquered rules in implacable Orcus;
All that else abides nor brooks, assuage, oh my goddess!
Hearest thou the howl of the dogs in the night? In silence and darkness
Dread Hecaté presides where three roads meet on a pathway.
Hasten to round the basin of brass, to soothe the immortals!—

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Lulled is the sea to rest, the night wind's hushed in a slumber;
But not hushed is my pain, nor slumber the pangs of my bosom,
All for him who left me, in shame—nor a wife, nor a virgin!

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Whether he measure his strength perchance in the spacious Palæstra;—
Or, from pleasure returned, the crowning rose and the myrtle
Now at midnight lays at the door of some beautiful maiden:
Lend him a thought of me, that sends a dart through his bosom,
Maddens his brains and thrills his heart with pangs of repentance.

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
See, into delicate shreds I pluck this piece of his mantle,
Throw them into the greedy flames, that catch and devour them;
But they cannot destroy the wayward love that is gnawing—
Woe is me!— at my heart and sucking the fount of my life-blood.

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Thestylis, bring me the herbs I plucked— by thy light, O Selene!
Hand me the mortar of brass and bring the cold Salamander;
With its baleful juice, oh Thestylis, sprinkling his threshold—
Whom my soul still clings to, alas! (but he cares not)—thou goest,
"Delphis' bones I anointed," to speak,—and spue on the timbers.

Spinning Iynx, oh hie thee and bring to my house the beloved one!
Left by myself, how shall I deplore the love that I cherish?
Where to begin—and whose is the blame for the woe that befell me?
'Twas of a bright, fair day, when Eubolus' daughter, Anaxo,
Brought to Artemis' grove hymeneal gifts in a basket;
Sacrifices were brought and beasts led in the procession,
That in the wilds do roam—a lioness, stately and fearful.

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Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh mighty Selene!
And the Thracian nurse, Theucharila, (now of the blessed,)*
Who next door did dwell, with instance begged and assailed me,
That I should go and see the procession; I—misery!—heard her.
Forth we sallied, an elegant robe I dragged from my shoulder,
And Clearista's mantle around was airily flowing.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh gracious Selene!
Gayly we wended our way, when, near the palace of Lycon,
Delphis I spied—Eudamippus with him—both gleefully walking.
Golden the floss on the chin there appeared—as Helichrysum—wholly
Radiant were they of face, much more than thou, oh Selene!—
E'en as if they were leaving good work at the games of the gymnasts.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh mighty Selene!
Him I saw, and the maddening power of divine Aphrodité
Throbbed in my breast, and giddiness then did seize on my senses;
Numbness came on my limbs; I cared not for the procession.
How I returned I know not, alas!—a fever had seized me,
Nor did I rise ten days and nights from the couch, as I wasted.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh mighly Selene!
Ah me! my cheeks grew sallow and wan as the shrivelly mullein;
All my hair fell away from my head, and nothing was left me,
Save on the bones the emaciate folds;—And who but I sent for;
What soothsayer's roof but I traced, could she only relieve me!
Still, to allay, no help could I find; time flew as I perished.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh holy Selene!
So to the maid I the truth must broach:—Oh Thestylis, speed thee,
Cure the disease, restore us to health; for the remedy, surely,
All my misery, too, lies in the Myndian, Delphis.
Go then and watch him afar at Tymagétos' palæstra,
Thither he loves to repair and abide in fellowship often.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh gracious Selene!
When thou meet'st him alone, thus say: "My mistress, Simaitha,
Calls thee."—Bring him along, I said. She went and she brought him.
Brought him into my house, bright Delphis; but when I saw him
Over the threshold pass with equal step and elastic,
Deadly pale grew my brow and cold as the snow on the mountains;
Drops of anguish broke from my pores like dew in the morning;
Not a sound could I utter but such as slumbering babies
Stammer in dreams as they call for their sire—I chilled into marble.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh gracious Selene!
When he, versed in the arts of love, espied me reclining,
Silent he stood, with downcast eyes, then slowly drew near me,

* Or, "beatified."

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Joined my trembling hands in his own, and said in a soft voice:
When thou sentest me word to come to thy house, oh Simaitha,
Truly then didst thou anticipate me as briefly in coming,
As in the races I did the fair and comely Philinos.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh gracious Selene!
Thee would I woo this eve, forsooth, by Love's instigation,
E'en as the least of thy friends, when Hesperus* reigned in the heavens,
With Dionysus,† fruit-wrapt in the folds of my bosom,
Crowned with Heracles' sacred branch, the silvery aspen—
Twined to a wreath and wound with a band of Tyrian purple.

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh goddess Selene!
Hadst thou kindly received me I would have been happy, Simaitha!
See, among all the youth they call me the fair one, the light one:
But one kiss of thy lips would have held me firmly for ever.
Hadst thou spurned me afar, thy door been bolted against me—
Why, with axes and torches ablaze, had I come to thy threshold?

Think of my love—how came it to pass?—oh goddess Selene!
First, forsooth!—an homage I owe to divine Aphrodité;
Next, dear maiden, to thee who thus hast grasped from the flame me,
Saved from the maddening fires to thy roof, oh gracious Simaitha—
Fires more fearfully dire than of Liparean Hephaistos; ‡
Such-like were his foibles. I, easily blinded, believed him.
Now let my tale be brief, oh goddess, all my repinings,
All my woe and my love I cannot tell thee, Selene!
Grievance none betwixt us stepped, reproach or upbraiding,
None till yesterday came to my door Philista's—the flutist's
Mother (Melixa's daughter)—and told me news—just as Eos, ‖
Rose-rayed rose from the sea to the sky—and all about Delphis.
Many the things she told me, and said that in love was Delphis.
Not that she knew with whom; but this much, that at a banquet
Unmixed wine he pledged to his love; that in haste he had left them:
Saying he would with his wreathes adorn the house of his fair one.
This what the old woman told me, and well I know she is truthful.
Three times used he to come of a day, four times as it happened.
Many a time he left us the doric oil-crock § in keeping.
Twelve long days have now passed by—not once have I seen him!
Surely another toy he now has, and mocks and illudes me.
Now with spells I bind him down, but should he deceive me,
Then, by the terrible Moirai,** his way will lead him to Hades!

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* The evening star.

† Or, Bacchus. He brought the vine from India, a sacred emblem of civilization.

‡ Or, Aurora; *i. e.*, the rosy fan-shaped rays of dawn, preceding the sun.

‖ The incessantly erruptive volcano of Stromboli, in the Lipari Islands, near Sicily.

§ Used for anointing the body in the gymnastic exercises of the palæstra.

** What the ancients used, to swear by: the "Fates" or "Destinies." ("*Sisters Three*," etc.)

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Deadly the poison I guard in a flask; I learned to prepare it
From an Assyrian guest who, Goddess! taught me to mix it.
Let my work be achieved!—Farewell, to Okeanas speed thou
Bright One thy steeds! Farewell, oh ye stars that lead the triumphal
Archway of night, farewell! My sorrow shall ever be with me.

Stuttgart, Germany. —MRS. CLARA TITTMANN.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

VII.

"If he should receive his money, he will buy a horse." (Intimates doubt of his receiving it, but not of buying, if the condition occur.)

"If he should receive his money, he would buy a horse." (The term "would buy" replacing "will buy," heightens the doubt of receiving it.)

"If he should receive his money, he may buy a horse." (Implies uncertainty of buying, and changing "may" into "might" would increase the implication.)

So, in Greek, the optative always increases the doubt, uncertainty, and indecision of the subjunctive. It is the past tense of the subjunctive.

In conditional propositions one clause is often left unexpressed—to be guessed at—supplied with more or less uncertainty, as the hearer or reader may fancy. In such cases the condition or the consequence, as the case may be, is barely intimated by the conditional mode in which the clause is expressed. The expression, "He would like to go," intimates some condition which is an obstacle to his going.

The optative future of the Greek is the future of some past time, and as futures are uncertain, this, although past, may be related as still unknown, and therefore uncertain, and may be used as a subjunctive. It corresponds with the conditionals of the French and Spanish. The conditionals of the Spanish verb closely resemble the Greek optative, being formed from the future, and aorist indicative in both languages, as "escribir," future "escribiré," conditional "escribiría;" aorist is "escribiéron," from which comes "escribiéra;" so in Greek, γράφειν, making in the future γράψω, future optative γράψοιμι, aorist ἔγραψα, optative γράψαιμι.

OF THE MODAL ADVERBS.

Modal adverbs modify the copulas of verbs, not their attributives.

"He will certainly go." "It is certain that he will go." "It" is the ostensible subject, standing in the place of the sub-proposition "that he will go," which is the true subject, and "is certain" is the predicate. "He will go" is a principal proposition; "that he will go" is a sub-proposition, made so by the sub-modifier "that," and, being so, is the subject of another proposition whose predicate is "is certain;" "certain" is a predicated adjective modifying "that he will go" with the same effect, and no other, as the modal verb "certainly" modifies "will go." And so also "He will possibly—probably go," is equal to "It is possible—probable that he will go." "He will assuredly go." "His going is sure." "His going" is a minor proposition and is also the subject of "is sure." "His" is the subject of the sub-predicate "going."

Sub-predicates in English formed from participles have their subjects in the

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genitive case, and this is a common and favorite form to render the subjunctives of other languages: as, "He can warm himself without making the fire." "Il peut se chauffer sans qu' il fasse le feu."

OF THE ARTICLES "A" AND "AN," AND THE PARTICLE "TO," USED BEFORE NOUNS AND VERBS, AND THEIR USE.

In English, nouns and verbs are not distinguished by grammatical forms. The same word with the same orthography may be a noun or a verb; hence, an infinitive following a transitive verb could not, without the particle "to," be distinguished from a noun; nor could a noun, without the article "a," be distinguished from a verb. Some verbs, never taking a noun after them, but always a verb, do not require the particle "to" between them and the following verb. The infinitive in such cases does not require the particle "to" to be prefixed. The following verbs do not require "to": "dare, need, must, may, can, shall, will." In affirmation "dare" and "need" may take "to," as, "He needs to go," "He dared to strike;" in negation they do not require and may not take "to" after them; "need," taking "must" before it, does not require "to," as, "He dare not go," "He need not go," "He must needs go through Samaria."

Abstract nouns, being never converted into verbs, or used as such, do not require "a" or "an," and, being useless, they are omitted before such. Two singular nouns used in a general sense omit the article "a" or "an," as, "Man is mortal," "Woman is frail." Others take the article "the" in such cases, as, "The dog is a faithful animal," "The horse is a useful animal."

The verb "do," as an intensive, modifies the following verb without the particle "to" before it.

In the sentence, "He does work," the word "work" may be taken as a noun or as a verb, as, "He does business-work." "What does he do?" "He does work." "Why don't he work?" "He does work," meaning he certainly works, "does" modifying the copula of "work" rather more forcibly than the modal adverb "forcibly."

OF IMPERSONAL OR UNI-PERSONAL VERBS.

Where an effect is produced with an unknown subject the expletive "it" is used in English to fill the place of such unknown subject. "It rains—hails—snows—sleets—mists—drizzles—freezes—thaws—thunders—lightens. It is hot—cold—warm—chilly—sultry, &c. These attributives, proceeding from some unknown or uncertain cause, are apprehended as effects, or as results coming into existence without any known subject, or proceeding from one altogether unknown, and this expletive "it" fills the place of such unknown or uncertain subject, out of which these attributes may come. These attributes, on being apprehended as things, would be represented by the class of words called nouns, and would require the articles "a," or "an," or "the," in the place of this expletive "it."

Some puzzling forms of language are simple contrivances to distinguish the uses of words. "The rain—a rain—it rains—the hail—it hails—a snow—it snows." The articles "a" and "the" show that the words are to be understood as nouns, and the particle "it" shows that they must be considered as verbs. The distinction is in the mind, and this mechanism of forms has been invented to show it. "Rain" is a mental occupation of a thing. "It rains" signifies that it is being produced, and the time of its production with the assertion of the speaker forming a proposition.

OF VOICE.

Voice is a property of a transitive verb enabling it to take two forms to express the same thought. They are called active and passive voices. There

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are two classes of transitive verbs, one having a nominative and an accusative case in the active voice, the other having a nominative, accusative, and dative case in the active voice. These cases have relation only to the verb, which is a sub-relation; they are the subjects of the verb. The voices of transitives are called active voice and passive voice. Intransitive verbs have the form of the active voice of transitive verbs; hence they are said to have but one voice. Some intransitive verbs have the passive form without the passive meaning. Some English and German verbs have two tense modifiers to form the complex tenses, as, "to have" and "to be"—"*haben* and *sein*". These perhaps are somewhat of the nature of the passive form of intransitive Latin verbs.

Intransitive verbs have subjects in only one relation and generally in the nominative case.

Each of the cases of the transitive verb in logic is called subject only when they are respectively in the nominative, yet their function is the same in whatever case they may be.

This analysis will regard the function of nouns, and pronouns, and clauses, and propositions in their relation to the verb, as the predicate of a proposition in the three cases above named. Their form, although inferior, will not be overlooked.

The actor, doer, possessor, or receiver will be considered to be the *active subject* of the proposition. The person, or thing, thought, clause, proposition acted upon, possessed, had, or received, will be considered to be the passive subject, which is what grammarians term the object of the transitive verb.

The person, or thing, to, or for, whom, or which, the action takes place will be considered to be the dative subject, whatever may be its case.

Thus, case and subject, being regarded from different stand-points, are deemed not to depend upon each other.

The subject is deemed to be unchangeable while expressing the same meaning, while the case of the subject changes to (conform) meet the changes of voice.

The subjects in reference to their functions are called active, passive, and dative, and to represent these functions, the terms. Active subjects in the nominative case. Active subject joined to the predicate by preposition "by." Passive subject in the nominative case, (when the verb is in the passive voice.) Passive subject in the accusative case, (when the verb is in active voice.) Dative subject in the dative case, (when the subject is in either the active or passive voice.) Dative subject in the nominative case, (when the subject is in the passive voice.) This is probably peculiar to English: as, "He was promised an apple."—"I was half promised it should be done."

The verb "to teach" seems properly to take two passive subjects, one to the person taught and the other of the subject-matter: as, "He taught me grammar." "Docuit me grammaticam. Er lehrte mich Grammatik."

Verbs are called transitive from *tansire* to pass over, because the action is supposed to pass over to an object. It is not always so: "They wounded him," "He received a wound."

Transitive and intransitive come nearer expressing the true functions of the verb than the old terms now discarded, —active and neuter verbs. Neuter was objectionable because it belonged more appropriately to the gender of the substantive, and active was equally applicable to a large class of neuter verbs. It was therefore a gain in grammar to exchange transitive and intransitive for active and neuter. Entire accuracy might require another classification.

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

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MUSICAL INSTRUCTION AS AN EDUCATIONAL AUXILIARY.

There are few problems of educational import attracting greater interest at present than that of musical instruction as an educational auxiliary. Whether the study of music is regarded as such, in a *rational*, philosophic sense, we believe the average number of systems and methods of instruction, as pursued in the past and the present, would readily testify, if submitted to a rational and scientific examination. Indeed, the *nature* of this problem *demands* a scientific investigation. It would not only be the most inductive method of arriving at the principles that justify the consideration of musical instruction as an educational auxiliary, and thus disarm the prejudices surrounding those most zealous to further its interests; but also throw some light upon *that* side of the question, which, judging from the chronic mania for musical text book manufacturing, can furnish the true principles by which to estimate their practical merits in an artistic and philosophic sense—*if* musical instruction is to be viewed in other than a secondary light, as heretofore. And although "educators recognize singing as a powerful agency in moral and æsthetic culture," we cannot, as rational and thinking educators, content ourselves with any system or method of instruction short of the *true* and only one—the principles of which are always derived from the elementary phenomena of the nature of the subject. We, therefore, heartily sympathize with the expression of a "distinguished teacher and author," as quoted in a most suggestive article on "Singing in Schools," and published in the April number of this journal, as follows: "I often wonder that we music-teachers are tolerated among educated men, when I consider in what a slipshod, unphilosophical way so many of us present our subject." "Nor is this strange," continues the author, "for, until recently, there has been no book, or series of books, sufficiently complete to learn to read music."

Whether the want of such a book, or series of books, fulfilling the expectations of a true systematic course, according to the natural laws of musical science and art: beginning with a rational unfolding of the elements of music from the *concrete* tone-phenomena, as established upon infallible laws of the organic and historical development of music, and from which the elementary principles governing a rational method of instruction must be derived, both with a view to developing a musical temperament of tone-sensibilities, and an harmonious culture of the mental faculties operative *in* musical art-pursuits: whether, in addition to these elementary requisites, we have at present, in this country, *one* suitable musical work, the system and selection of material of which, for instruction, embodies pedagogic principles, in a sense of *logical* development of specific ideas from the general idea of an organic and progressive development of subject-matter, as natural sequences to each other; not to speak of appropriate selections of compositions, governed by the individualities of different *ages* and *stages* of physical development of the vocal organs, as well as by the different *grades* of mental and emotional experiences—for the vocal organs, tone-sensibilities, problems in a more scientific sense, we shall content ourselves with a cursory and emotional (psychical) experiences of an individual, keep pace with the de-

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grees of physical and mental development;—whether we have received such a work "recently," even in a *true* elementary sense—no other method than that of a rational investigation of the tone-phenomena as in their relation to the oral and psychical laws of tone-sensibilities, (Helmholtz,) will enable us to determine.

Time and space, however, not permitting us to enter upon the above consideration of those scientific and musical facts which are calculated to set forth some practical views upon educational principles and laws, that *must* govern a rational musical instruction, as indicated in the elementary concrete of the natural phenomena of music, and of musical art.

The records of history furnish some very important documents favoring the adoption of music as an educational auxiliary, viewed, however, from a *general* rather than a *rational* stand-point of culture. The researches into the physical laws of tone-sensibilities (German, *Tonempfindungen*, as illustrated by Helmholtz, Tyndall, and others,) and the related sciences, psychology and æsthetics, (as developed by Herbart, Lotze, Beneke, and Spencer,) being at that time only in a primitive state of development, were therefore unavailable in the discovery of the laws that unfold the *principles* underlying a rational science of music, and of musical instruction.

Among the early efforts of the ancients, made in this direction of research, were those of Pythagoras in particular, whose entire system of education and philosophy was intimately interwoven with music. With him it was not to be practised in a general (indirect) sense, as with the Egyptians; but upon rational (objective) principles. Knowing the power of music in all its branches, he studied and practised it, now to stimulate, then to calm the spirits; and thus he sought to establish music as a medium by which to harmonize all the human faculties, and to subordinate to the better will every passionate excitement. (Quint. Institut., IX., c. 4.) Among ancient researches, of a more abstract and philosophic character, into the science of music, those of Plato and Aristotle have been generally accredited by superior intellects. According to Aristotle, (3d and 4th chap. Pol.) music should be studied for the sake of its power over the morals and manners of a people, as well as for the sake of its recreative influences. Plutarch—who forms, as it were, the bridge between the old and new era—entertained views similar to those of Aristotle, regarding the influence of music upon *morals* and *manners*. In his dissertation on music, in which he sought to unfold the laws of art, its beauty, etc.; dwelling at the same time upon its educational merits, among other things, says: "Music is something so superior, so divine, so great—something so beautiful and sublime that our forefathers were right in keeping it in high estimation in education."

That music may be employed as a direct means of cultivating the *imagination* and the *heart*, is an established fact; but, that the *arts* (or music) and *morality* have a *direct* mutual inter-dependence, must, upon reflection, appear as a vague speculation of the imagination—not to speak of a psychological incongruity of the assertion.

It may, however, be claimed, that an harmonious culture of the mind and the imagination, by means of vocal music in particular, can *generate* a refined enjoyment, and attune the mind to gentleness and content, and thus develop an order of virtues within the heart that must, sooner or later, exert a wholeseme influence upon the general character of

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the individual. It is thus that æsthetic culture may be directed *objectively*, in accomplishing its mission of developing the mind: *ideals* of the true, the good, and the beautiful, by assimilating their *impressions* with an harmonious culture of the mind and heart, thus establish a true and fundamental basis for the structure of religious and moral culture. Besides, in the order of the development of intelligence, *æsthetic* culture has always preceded that of religious and moral development. Æsthetic culture may be viewed as the moral teaching of *nature;* religious culture, as the inner development of *consciousness;* while moral culture is but the result of *free will.* Moral culture, however, being the link that entwines the virtues of both æsthetic and religious ideals into one complete development of harmony within, should *engender* a deep reverence for the *divine* ideal of design in nature and art.

There is also in the nature of our senses, in the diversity of their action, another powerful argument favoring an harmonious culture. These senses may be ennobled, either by a specific branch of study, calculated to educate them into a special direction of activity, or by training them in harmony with other faculties and branches. Hence, mere mental culture at the sacrifice of the emotional (æsthetic and psychical) nature of the individual, cannot be imagined, without incurring a detriment to either one or the other. When the one ascends in the scale of perfectibility, the other cannot remain in constant infancy. This principle—proving the necessity of harmonious development, however disregarded, and sometimes discredited by educators, (perhaps more so from motives of personal interest, than inability of appreciation,)—may be observed as a *fact* in all the organic and inorganic developments of life, from the co-relation of cosmic, to that of the more subtle inter-action of mental and spiritual forces.

Moreover, the "*Nature of Intelligence,*" as illustrated by Herbert Spencer (Psych., Part IV.,) shows, "by a glance at the many continuous actions constituting the life of the body at large, that they are *synchronous*—a number of functions operative at one time; that digestion, circulation, respiration, excretion, secretion, etc., in all their many sub-divisions, are going on at one time in *mutual dependence.* And the briefest introspection makes it clear that the actions constituting thought, occur not together, but one after another." Thus, the difference between physical and mental activities "not occurring together" in the nature of intelligence, is one of *degree* and *differentiation:* an *evolutional* succession of development, rather than an *independent* action of faculties. There can, therefore, be no such thing as an abstract development of the individuality of the mind and character in a strict sense. Indeed, the term itself indicates an *indivisibility* when applied to the mental and spiritual nature of man. This fact may partially establish the practical merits of the principle in the method of teaching from the *concrete* to the abstract,—the creed of Pestalozzi,—inasmuch as there can be no such thing as an *independent* activity of mental functions in an abstract sense, or even without an intervention of other functions more or less closely related.

The facts of experience also prove, that no one faculty of the mind can be employed in life, or educated for a practical purpose, *without* the co-operation and *inter-action* of one function within another. Thus, for example, what is understood by "developing the individuality of the mind," or "of character," implies either an harmonious or

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partial interaction or association of faculties in a unity of completion. Therefore, the expression made in regard to a "vague and unbalanced imagination," implies a partial *absence* of an inter-action, or association, of the reasoning functions. Thus, for instance, the method of teaching from the *abstract* to the concrete, as adopted in Mr. Mason's first book of "The Song-Garden," and, still more recently, in Mr. Loomis's "First Steps in Music,"—is not only un-Pestalozzian and unnatural, but less practical than the opposite: from the *concrete* to the abstract. It is *not* teaching or presenting the thing as in its *concrete* phenomena; but it is teaching the *parts before an oral* perception of the *concrete*, as in its form and external relation of parts to each other, viz: the tri-cord 1, 3 and 5, as the fundamental tone-phenomena in music. A development of the tone-sensibilities and oral sympathy existing between the mathematical relationship of the tone-phenomena (the tri-chord), as forming the elementary *concrete* of a rational or natural musical instruction, *cannot* be established without an oral *perception* of the *concrete*, after which only, a method of abstraction, of tones as single factors in a progressive relation to each other, can be employed with practical effect in a musical, artistic sense. The object of the *concrete* method must be to impress the *nature* of the thing (tri-chord) as the *a priori* element of music, by means of *oral* perception. While the object of the *abstract* method must be to deduce, by means of a comparison of the sub-elementary parts of the concrete, those which are to be comprehended as abstract factors, such as single tones or tones forming distinct intervals, in relation to the concrete as a whole. Thus, oral perception, by means of *comparison*, developes an *understanding*, and furnishes the means of developing the first essential object of elementary instruction: the development of an oral temperament, with regard to an intelligent and intuitive *distinction* of the *exact nature* of tone-relations to each other. For a rational perception and comprehension of a *thing* in its form and relations of parts to each other, can only be developed by means of a *perception* of its form as *concrete*. Nor till then can any virtue be attributed to the method of abstraction, while, however, by means of its principles of *analysis* of the concrete, we obtain a *rational* comprehension and *understanding* of the elementary parts as in their relation to the whole. This mode of proceeding was the secret of Pestalozzi's method of teaching. But in his case, with Rousen, tradition and criticism—more or less capable of advice—have added innumerable amendments to his method, and adapted them to every conceivable branch of culture, science, and art, particularly with great pomposity to music and literature, with, however, more or less success, as indeed history has often enough proved. The cause of these failures seems to have consisted more in a mis-application of Pestalozzi's system than in any inexpediency of the *philosophic* principles of his method.

The application of methods should vary with the nature and character of the subject. Thus, it would be absurd to attempt the teaching of history or *belles lettres* upon principles of the *concrete* to the abstract; or to suppose that one can arrive at a sound appreciation of the spirit and character of Grecian history by a concrete knowledge of the nineteenth century.

On the other hand, the "Law of Intelligence," (as illustrated by the psychologists, Herbert, Beneke, Jessen, and Spencer,) shows that "All life, whether physical or psychical (mental), being the combination of changes and sequences,

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it results that, if the changes constituting psychical life, occur in succession, the law of their succession must be the law of their correspondence." (Spencer Psych., Part IV.) In other words, the law governing a natural unfolding of *mental* development, must harmonize with the natural succession of principles employed in instruction, as well as correspond with the natural succession of an organic and historic order of development of the subject (or tone-phenomena) in question. Therefore, the principle of a method of rational instruction must be governed by the laws governing an organic and historical order of development of the mind, as well as by the laws governing a "logical" order of development of the "nature" of the subject taught. Instruction must proceed education. The former is the application of means to an end, while the latter is the end arrived at by a response of nature. A rational instruction—in regard to its subject-matter—manifests itself in a natural and systematic process of unfolding of the parts as in their order and relations to each other, and *not* in an arbitrary selection of system or method.

Thus, instruction may be said closely to "assimilate" knowledge upon organic principles of association, making it a vital part of the individual. Education thus not only becomes developed into a climax, or state of general completion, as the result of that which has been educed, or developed, into "self-conscious activity" in the individual, and drawn forth harmoniously; but it finally merges into an endless process of "unconscious self-instruction" on the part of the individual. Instruction being but a process of building up a system of principles and facts within, the teacher who observes the laws of the mind, therefore, not only furnishes the individual with "tools," by means of which he can instruct himself, but also teaches him how to understand his own nature, and that of the "ideals" he may seek to realize; thus enabling him to become his own architect, according to the laws prescribed for him in the organic systems of physical and mental development, and according to which he can securely realize his plans of self-culture in the future.

The laws governing general instruction are also the same in musical instruction. Our next step, with a view to realizing the nature of the laws that govern its system, and of ascertaining the principles of the method, will necessarily lead us to a consideration of the nature of music as a concrete tone-phenomena.

R. MEES.

Editors' Department.

SOUTH MISSOURI NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The work on the building has begun in earnest. The excavations for the foundations are being pushed rapidly, and, on the 4th of July, the ceremonial of the laying of the corner-stone will take place. His Excellency B. Gratz Brown will deliver the oration. Hon. Thos. E. Garrett, Wm. T. Harris, and others, are expected to be present and address the people. Special trains will be run East and West, and every facility for the comfort of guests provided. The citizens of Warrensburg will extend the hospitalities of their city. The school has openee well.

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IMPRESSIONS OF CHICAGO AND HER SCHOOLS.

Away from the dust and the smoke of St. Louis for a day or two! I take the omnibus opposite the Planters' House, shake hands from the window with a friend or two, and turn my thoughts to Chicago. Down Chestnut street, athwart the Levee, aboard the ferry-boat, which, snorting and panting like a monster of the deep, carries us deliberately to the Illinois shore. Ascending the Eastern Levee to the Depot of the St. Louis and Vandalia Railroad,—through a cloud of dust,—I dismount, and, depositing my valise in the sleeping-car, in which I have taken the precaution to secure a good berth, I return to the platform to take a look from abroad at dear, dirty St. Louis. In former days they represented saints with halos of radiance round their heads; now-a-days, poor St. Louis is enveloped completely in a halo of a very different kind. The aspect of the city is anything but inviting. A friend of mine used to define London as distance and fog. In a similar way, St. Louis might be set down as red brick and coal-smoke. The general dinginess is relieved only by the dome of the court-house and the white steam-boats lying along the Levee. One, as he looks, thinks rather of lame, grimy Vulcan than of pious, bigoted St. Louis, and indeed the whole city has a certain heathen aspect about it. No cathedral towers, no massive Gothic spires, pointing, like divine fingers, upward to the infinite heaven full of light and promise; all is flat, and square, and earthy, manifestly sprung from the bowels of the earth below, not let down from the heaven above. My mind is occupied with such thoughts as these, running into the tendencies of modern progress, and into dim guesses about progress in general, human effort, and so forth, when I am addressed by a young man bearing the aspect of a commercial traveler. He had sat next to me in the omnibus, and I had discovered from his accent, and his elegant English, perfectly free from slang or slipshod expressions, that he was an Englishman—and one too of good education. A person traveling is more than usually ready to form acquaintances, more particularly if he flatters himself that he posseses some skill in physiognomy. So, when the train began to move off, we entered the sleeping car together, seated ourselves face to face and opened a conversation. From common and trivial topics we passed to more serious ones—his impressions of America, his views in regard to aristocracy and democracy, his experiences in regard to the education, moral tone and refinement of commercial men in England as compared with America, the life of commercial travelers, and so forth. On all these points I found myself speaking to a man who had formed very clear and dispassionate conclusions. He had spent but a few years in America, yet long enough to be a very enthusiastic American, completely cured of any desire to return to his native country. He hated aristocracy, but without fanaticism, and believed in democracy, notwithstanding its numerous and very manifest drawbacks. He believed that a country ought to be governed not by its ignorance, but by its intelligence. He thought all men were born (—not free and equal, but,—) to become free, and to strive to be equal to the highest. He had seen enough of the rule of ignorance in New York and elsewhere. Amid such conversation, the train was hurrying on over the green prairie, past neat farm-houses, coal-fields, clumps of forest, showing now and again a quiet avenue with green path, which one could easily imagine led to some bowery home of domestic peace. Then came snug villages, clearly designated by the

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never-failing beer-saloons as the abodes of numerous contented Teutons. At nine o'clock we reached Vandalia, where we stopped twenty minutes for supper. Neither myself nor my companion feeling disposed to sup at so late an hour, I invited him to take a glass of beer with me. He accepted the invitation, but when we reached the nearest saloon, he told me he never drank beer or anything stronger—he would, however, take a bottle of sarsaparilla. Our host being a German, I asked for *Bretzels*, but was told it didn't pay to make them in the country. Seeing that he charged but five cents for the sarsaparilla, I expressed my surprise. "Oh," said he, "we charge only five —— from Germans!" I pocketed the compliment along with my change, and did not undeceive him. I could not help thinking, however, that he was a true Teuton, for I remember similar experiences in the hotels in Germany. When the train started again, I took the liberty of asking my new acquaintance what part of England he came home—I knew it must be from some of the northern counties. He said, "From Northumberland." He had been educated at the Grammar (we should say *High*) School of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and knew persons who were also acquaintances of mine. I tried to poze him on the Northumbrian dialect, and asked him whether he understood the piece of testimony which was once given by a Northumbrian in a law-court in Newcastle: "I was down on the quay-side," said the witness, "and I saw a man come out o' a chair-foot, eatin' a brick, and there was a hubbishaw." He understood it all but the last word. This brought us to talk about purity of language, and his experiences in regard to the education of American commercial men. Of this he seemed to have no very high idea. He thought it was too narrow and superficial, leading to much slovenliness and lack of method in the transaction of business afterwards. He had come to the conviction that the worst fault of Americans, and the source of all their other faults, was hurry.

"Good night!" "Good night!"—and I was soon comfortably ensconced in my berth. But the moon, which shone in at the windows of the car, was too bright, the sky too clear, and the country too fresh and green to admit of Sleep's direct approach, and so, for a long time, I lay, my head supported by my elbow, and watched the trees and houses as they hurried past. Then, at last, sleep came, and I knew nothing more till I awoke, seven hours afterwards, within a few miles of Chicago. Having washed and dressed, I looked about for my acquaintance of the evening before, and found that he had risen before me, not having slept so soundly. The morning was calm and beautiful, too restful to provoke conversation. He pointed out to me, however, that streets were marked out and graded six miles outside of the present city-limits of Chicago. Sanguine, at least, the Chicagonese are. They think—

"That which they have done but earnest of the things which they shall do."

The run along the shore of blue Lake Michigan, with its sun-lit bosom, makes one enter Chicago with a disposition to be pleased with everything. So indeed I did. Good-bye to my acquaintance, a short ride in an omnibus through broad, elegant streets, arrival at the Sherman House, a climb in the elevator, a room with a magnificent prospect over the city, a wash, breakfast, a few inquiries, and I am ready to do Chicago.

Everything contributed to make my visit a delightful one. I had passes for the railroad, friends in Chicago, letters of introduction, one or two definite aims, and unsurpassable weather. After a short walk through the city, in order to

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make myself acquainted with the lie of the streets, the manner of numbering the houses, &c., I called at the office of a member of a large publishing firm, which has a branch in Chicago. After the preliminary civilities, I turned the conversation with this gentleman to the subject of the rapid growth and future prospects of Chicago. To my astonishment, I found he expected very little from either the one or the other. He said that Chicago had very little local wealth, as compared even with St. Louis, but had grown mainly on Eastern capital—which, however, would after a time become local capital. He doubted whether the growth and prosperity of Chicago could continue much longer. This doubt he based upon a conviction regarding the future of the country generally. Like very many thinking men of the present day, he had come to the conclusion that democracy, as at present represented in America, is, in as far at least as regards its moral, social, educational, and commercial effects, a failure. While admitting that the Government of the United States was the freest in the world, as far as *form* was concerned, he affirmed that socially the Americans were the greatest slaves in the world—slaves, too, of the meanest of masters, an unreasoning, ignorant, public opinion. Corruption, avarice, ("the Almighty Dollar,") display, he found everywhere in life, superficiality and display everywhere in education. America would be in a worse condition than France, as soon as there was no more cheap land and high wages for manual labor. Then we should find what a cruel giant we had let loose in Universal Suffrage. Then, if the country were to be saved at all, it would only be through a revolution, ending in a military despotism to last several generations, until the government were taken entirely out of the hands of ignorance and corruption and placed in those of intelligence and worth. A friend of his had written a series of pictures of the times, which he expected would be published after his death, and read with incredulous amazement by future generations, who would be unable to believe that a state could have existed at all under such circumstances.

My conversation with this gentleman led me to think that, after all, Chicago could hardly be the place to render an intelligent man sanguine about the future. Being introduced to a gentleman who was on his way to the office of Mr. Pickard, the Superintendent of the Schools, I went directly thither, and, on arriving, was told that Mr. Pickard was engaged up-stairs holding a Principals' meeting; as, however, nothing of a secret nature was transacted there, I might go up and be a spectator. Accordingly, up I went, and was introduced to Mr. Pickard, to whom I had a letter of introduction—now rendered useless. The meeting occupied what, from the numbered desks, was evidently the board-room, and a very bright, cheerful, pleasant room it was, with gay carpets and new furniture. The Superintendent, as president of the meeting, was seated on the platform, as was also a gentleman who appeared to be acting as secretary. The principals, about thirty in number, including seven ladies, were seated at desks, arranged round the room in the form of a semi-circle. I accepted a seat on the platform, within whispering distance of the Superintendent. The subject under discussion was the report of a committee, which had been appointed at a previous meeting to consider the programme of studies in the district schools and suggest such changes therein as they thought would be advisable. The programme stood previously as follows:

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PROGRAMME OF PROMOTIONS.

TENTH GRADE.
Average, 85; *Minimum*, 70.

READING. SPELLING. WRITING. NUMBERS. MISCELLANEOUS.* AVERAGE.

* Includes Music, Oral and Elementary Sounds.

NINTH GRADE.
Average, 85; *Minimum*, 70.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. NUMBERS.* MISCELLANEOUS.† MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* Both Oral and Written.

† Includes Oral, Punctuation Marks and Elementary Sounds.

EIGHTH GRADE.
Average, 80; *Minimum*, 60.

READING. SPELLING. WRITING. NUMBERS.* SLATE ARITH.† MISCELLANEOUS.‡ MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* Includes Tables and Combinations, both Oral and Written.

† Reading and writing Arabic and Roman numbers, and Addition and Subtraction to limit of grade.

‡ Oral, Punctuation Marks, Capitals and Elementary Sounds.

SEVENTH GRADE.
Average, 80; *Minimum*, 60.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. NUMBERS.** SLATE ARITH.† MISCELLANEOUS.‡ MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* 50 words from Speller and Reader—25 each.

** Tables and Combinations, Oral and Written; also Mental Arithmetic—answers only.

† To limit of Grade. See 8th Grade.

‡ Includes Oral, Punctuation, Capitals, Abbreviations and Elementary Sounds.

SIXTH GRADE.
Average, 80; *Minimum*, 60.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. NUMBERS.** SLATE ARITH.† MISCELLANEOUS.‡ MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* Same as 7th Grade.

** Tables and Combinations, Oral and Written; Mental Arithmetic—answers mainly—analysis begun.

† See 7th and 8th Grades.

‡ Same as 7th Grade.

FIFTH GRADE.
Average, 75; *Minimum*, 50.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. MENT. ARITH.** WRITTEN ARITH.† GEOGRAPHY. MISCELLANEOUS.‡ ORAL. MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* 30 to 35 words from Speller—20 to 15 from other text-books.

** 5 questions requiring answers only; 5 difficult combinations; 5 for analysis—answers ½, and analysis ½—last 5 equaling other 10 questions.

† Without Rules or Explanation.

‡ Includes Punctuation, Capitals, Abbreviations and Phonic Analysis.

FOURTH GRADE.
Average, 75; *Minimum*, 50.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. MENTAL ARITH.† WRITTEN ARITH.‡ GEOGRAPHY. GRAMMAR. MISCELLANEOUS. ORAL. MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* 30 to 35 words from Speller, 15 to 20 from other text-books.

† 10 questions for answers only; 5 for analysis; last 5 to equal other 10.

‡ Includes Punctuation, Capitals, Abbreviations and Phonic Analysis.

THIRD GRADE.
Average, 70; *Minimum*, 50.

NG. SPELLING.* WRITING. MENTAL ARITH.* WRITTEN ARITH. GEOGRAPHY. GRAMMAR. MISCELLANEOUS.* ORAL. MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* Same as 4th Grade.

SECOND GRADE.
Average, 70; *Minimum*, 50.

READING. SPELLING.* WRITING. MENTAL ARITH.* WRITTEN ARITH. GEOGRAPHY. GRAMMAR. HISTORY. MISCELLANEOUS.† MUSIC. AVERAGE.

* Same as 4th Grade.

† Includes Oral, Punctuation, Capitals, Abbreviations and Phonic Analysis.

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The committee, it appeared had suggested that the word "Miscellaneous" should be struck out in all grades, and replaced by "Language" and "Oral," the word "Oral" being then removed from foot-notes. There were, I think, a few other very slight alterations, but, as the reformed programme had not been printed, I was unable to obtain a copy. The main aim of the proposed changes seemed to be, to direct closer attention to the study of language, and to accustom the pupils, from the day they entered school, to express themselves correctly and easily. I have no doubt that by putting Language, in this sense, in the list of prescribed studies upon which the pupils are to be examined for promotion, a most salutary influence will be exerted both upon teachers and upon pupils, and a certain bar put upon that use of slip-shod and faulty English, which is so common in many schools everywhere. So long as teachers allow themselves to perpetrate such sentences as:—"He *don't* know *as* he was *that* old when he *come* here," what can be expected of pupils? A motion was carried to consider and vote on the different grades separately, in view of the changes proposed, so that the rejection or adoption of one part of the committee's report might not involve the rejection or adoption of the whole. In every case, I believe, the *changes* proposed by the committee were adopted without opposition; but a persistent stand was made by a few—a very few—members to introduce a change which the committee had not suggested. This related to the "minimum," which is demanded in every study of every grade. For example, it is required, not only that each pupil in the tenth grade shall reach an average per cent. of 85 in all his studies, but also that his per cent. shall not fall below 70 in any one study. As each grade came up for consideration, the same—rather cantankerous-looking — gentleman made a motion, which was as uniformly seconded by another gentleman, not at all cantankerous-looking, that the minimum should be struck out, and in each case the motion was lost by an overwhelming majority. As a general rule the non-cantankerous gentleman even proposed that "the minimum be reduced to 30," a motion almost uniformly seconded by the cantankerous gentleman. It was however, as uniformly lost as the previous one had been, and the minima remained as they had been before. In the course of this discussion, I could not but admire the order and gentlemanly bearing of the principals, their evident interest in the discussion, and their strict observance of parliamentary rules. Still more did I admire the quiet firmness and courtesy of the superintendent, who, while apparently on easy and even familiar terms with every one, never forgot the demands of his office as superintendent or as president of the meeting. In the course of the discussion many excellent arguments came up in regard to the value of minima, showing that they involve more than one might at first imagine. On one side it was maintained that the effect of minima was to crush the minds of all pupils, however various their faculties, into one mould, and thereby to cramp all special talents and destroy individuality. One gentleman put the case very vigorously, maintaining that pupils usually come out of school as like each other as cannon balls, and as free from salient points of character. On the other hand, it was argued that, at all events, in the lower grades, each pupil should be obliged to reach a high minimum in each branch, each being absolutely indispensible not only as a basis for all future education, but also intrinsically, as a portion of the most elementary education. Of what

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use, for example, would it be to promote to a higher grade, a pupil who could not spell so many as 70 of the 100 words demanded in the examination of the lower grade? Some principals very unequivocally showed that they believed in a cannon-ball system of education, and I may here state my conviction that there is throughout the Chicago Schools a not very healthy attempt to secure uniformity of methods in the teachers and uniformity of attainments in the pupils. No one, I believe, will upon careful consideration, deny that in each and all elementary branches—the three R's—a very high standard should be rigidly insisted upon. After they are mastered, however, it does seem eminently reasonable that the special faculties, pecularities and predilections of each pupil's mind should be carefully taken into account, and that, if a uniformity in regard to branches of study is demanded at all, a very low minimum should be accepted, provided the requisite average is attained. Some of the greatest intellects in the world have been absolutely incapable of mastering certain studies. Göthe furnishes an excellent example. The complaint is often made that America produces no first-class scholars. It may be safely predicted that she never will, until she gives more scope to individual tastes and predilections, and abandons all attempts at Procrustean education.

After the discussion of the programme had closed, Mr. Pickard called upon me to say a few words to the meeting upon the subject of Language. Having had no preparation, and not quite understanding what aspect of language in particular I was expected to treat, I was not in a position to say anything worth hearing. I could not, however, resist the gentlemanly invitation of Mr. Pickard, even at the risk of compromising myself—which I honestly believe I did. However, my intentions were good, and I rode my hobby complacently for a full quarter of an hour. I am bound to say that the meeting showed a degree of patience that testified strongly to their fitness for their profession.

After appointing work for their next meeting, the teachers adjourned, while I made an arrangement with the Superintendent for visiting the city schools. As I was going down stairs I heard one principal say—loud enough for all to hear—"This minimum-business is the greatest swindle in the schools except the German; anybody that can manage a room with a German teacher poking about, will be able to teach in Tophet when he gets there." I don't know, but I suspect that the gentleman who uttered this sentiment must have been a native of Chicago. There is a story current there, that a westward traveller, having died in Chicago, presented himself at the gate kept by St. Peter, for admittance. The Saint inquired where he came from, and on being told "From Chicago," at once taxed the candidate for admittance with falsehood, on the ground that there was no such place. The latter having pointed it out on a map, the Saint yielded, but thought it was very strange, as nobody had ever come to him from there! It appears that some of the appointed instructors of the Chicagonese have no desire or expectation of ever troubling the Saint.

(*To be continued.*)

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Elsewhere is published the programme for this meeting. The subjects are attractive, and, if well handled, as they undoubtedly will be, will have a value beyond the hour. Favorable terms have been made with the various railroad and steamboat companies, and we hope to see the West properly rep-

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resented. We do not believe in gong-beating and pyrotechnic display for the purpose of securing recruits for educational meetings, but that enlistments should be voluntary. It is a professional duty which every teacher should be willing to discharge, when possible, without special argument or urging.

Reviews and Notices.

PLAYS OF SHAKSPEARE, SELECTED AND PREPARED FOR USE IN SCHOOLS, CLUBS, CLASSES, AND FAMILIES; with Introductions and Notes. By the Rev. HENRY H. HUDSON. Vol I. Boston: *Ginn Brothers & Co.*, 1870.

It is rarely that a text-book is prepared by a scholar, and it is therefore refreshing to meet with a work which neither attempts to simplify by omitting all that requires study, nor revels in a confusion of words, which merely seem to heap up technical terms. Text-books seem generally to arise, not from any want felt in the school-room, but from the necessities of the publisher and the anxiety of men to dignify any slight correction, by proposing it as a panacea for all mental ailments.

Hudson's School Shakspeare is the work of an author, who, while but little appreciated in his own country, is ranked by one of our most competent European critics with such men as Gervinus and Ulrici. When such a man will conscientiously undertake to prepare a work for young students, we may expect a product likely to be of value.

The numerous cheap editions of Shakspeare indicate the circle of those who seek inspiration from the words of the world's great interpreter, and to those as yet unfamiliar with Shakspearian literature, any hints towards selection of text, may prove not unserviceable. Furthermore, Shakspeare now forms a part of the curriculum in many of our best schools, and all the teachers will value any attempt at guidance.

The book under review is sizable, printed in fair type upon good paper, and presents eight plays, each prefaced by an introduction, giving the history of, and general but judicious criticisms. For the ordinary student, no edition will be found so serviceable.

Many of us, doubtless, have, in reading the notes furnished by the various commentators, been impressed with the fact, that difficulties were skillfully avoided; that the explanations of simple passages were abundant, and that the character of some of the notes were protected against the charge of inanity by the respectable names which gave them countenance. When we are quite young, we suspect that even men of great reputation may utter platitudes; when we are older, we are convinced of this possibility. In illustration, alike of the judgment shown by Mr. Hudson in his selections and omissions, I append a few passages, together with the comments of the various authors upon them:

MERCHANT OF VENICE—

"Your mind is tossing on the ocean;
There where your *argosies* with portly sail," &c.

STEEVENS—In Ricaut's Maxims of "Turkish Polity," chap. xiv, it is said, "Those vast carracks called argosies, which are so much famed for the vastness of their burthen and bulk, were corruptly so termed from Ragosies," i. e., ships of Ragusa, a city or territory on the gulf of Venice, tributary to the Porte. If my memory does not fail me, the Ragusans lent their last great ship to the King of Spain for the Armada, and it was lost upon the coast of Ireland. Shakspeare, as Mr. Heath observes, has given the name of Ragozine to the pirate, in "Measure for Measure."

HUDSON—Argosies are large ships, either for merchandise or for war. The name was probably derived from the classical ship "Argo," which carried Jason and the Argonauts in quest of the golden fleece.

——"I should be still
Plucking the grass to know where sits the wind."

JOHNSON—By holding up a blade of grass, or any other light body that will bend with a gentle blast, the direction of the wind may be ascertained.

HUDSON—No note.

"And see my merry Andrew dock'd in sand."

JOHNSON—"Andrew" the name of the ship.

COLLIER—"Andrew" is the ship's name.

HUDSON—Italian ships were apt to be named from "Andrea Doria," the great Genoese navigator.

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"Vailing her high-top lower than her ribs."

STEEVENS—In Bullokar's English Expository, 1616, *to vail* is thus explained: "It means to put off the hat, to strike sail, to give sign of submission." So, in Stephen Goffon's book called "Playes Confuted in Several Actions":

"They might have vailed and bended to the king's idol."

And so on through three more quotations.

HALLIWELL—*To vail*, is to lower or let down. If the higher part of the vessel was nearer to the sea than her hull, *we must presume that she would be in great danger.*

HUDSON—*To vail*, is to lower, to let fall.

"Nature hath framed strange fellows in her time;
Some that will evermore peep through their eyes,
And laugh, like parrots, at a bag-piper.

WARBURTON—*This gives us a very picturesque image of the countenance in laughing, when the eyes appear half-shut.*

HUDSON—No comment.

"And other of such vinegar aspect,
That they'll not show their teeth in way of smile."

WARBURTON—*Because such are apt enough to shew their teeth in anger.*

"Fare ye well, awhile;
I'll end my exhortation after dinner."

WARBURTON—The *humor* of this consists in its being an allusion to the practice of the Puritan preachers of those times; who being generally very long and tedious, were often forced to put off that part of their sermon called the exhortation, until after dinner.

HALLIWELL—Substantially the same note.

HUDSON—No comment.

"Farewell; I'll grow a talker for this gear."

MALONE—Gear appears to me to have no meaning here. I would therefore read:

"I'll grow a talker for this *year*,"

alluding to what Gratiano has just said:

"Well, keep me company but *two years* more."

HALLIWELL—Gear is an obsolete word of no very determinate meaning in the way in which it is here used; it probably signified, for this time or fashion.

HUDSON—Gear was often used of any business, matter, or affair in hand.

"Ay, that's a colt indeed."

JOHNSON—Colt is used of a witless, heady, gay youngster; *whence the phrase used of an old man too juvenile, that he still retains his colt's teeth.*

HALLIWELL—Same note.

HUDSON—The Neapolitans were eminently skilled in horsemanship. Colt is used of a witless, heady, gay youngster.

"He hath neither Latin, French, nor Italian."

WARBURTON—*A satire upon the ignorance* of the yonng English travelers in our author's time.

HALLIWELL—A satire upon the ignorance of young Englishmen of quality, who, it would appear, traveled on the continent, although ignorant of every language but their own.

HUDSON—No comment.

"I'll rather dwell in my necessity."

JOHNSON—*To dwell* in this place seems to mean the same as to *contiuue*. To abide has both the senses of habitation and continuance.

HALLIWELL—That is, abide or continue in it.

HUDSON—(The commentator leaves this discovery to the unassisted reason of the student.)

"To prove whose blood is reddest, his or mine."

HALLIWELL—Red blood is a traditionary sign of courage and high breeding; men of a treacherous and cowardly nature were said to have yellow blood. It is customary, in the east, for lovers to testify the violence of their passion by cutting themselves in the sight of their mistresses.

JOHNSON—To understand how the tawny prince, whose savage dignity is very well supported, means to recommend himself by this challenge; it must be remembered that red blood is a traditionary sign of courage. Thus, Macbeth calls one of his frighted soldiers *a lily-livered clown*; again, in this play, cowards are said to have livers as white as milk; and an effeminite and timorous man is termed *a milk-sop*.

HUDSON—Red blood is a traditionary sign of courage. Thus, Macbeth calls one of his frighted soldiers, a lily-livered boy; again, in the play, cowards are said to have livers as white as milk; and an effeminate man is termed a milk-sop.

H. H. MORGAN.

High School, St. Louis.

A RHETORICAL READER for Class Drill and Private Instruction in Elocution. By Prof. ROBERT KIDD. Cincinnati: *Wilson, Hinkle & Co.*; New York: *Clark & Maynard.*

Above all things in a reading-book, the selections should be made with care from authors of first-class reputation. They should be complete in themselves, and not mere fragments that have little meaning out of their connection in the original work. They should portray vividly the different shades and phases of emotion and passion as well as furnish examples of the different styles of descrip-

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tion and trains of reasoning. Long study and meditation over master-pieces of rhetoric poetry will do more to purify and elevate the taste of the pupil than all the rules and maxims ever compiled. First should come this familiar accquaintance with models; afterwards the work of analysis will lead to the rules and principles, and when taken up in this order they will have real significance to the pupil.

That the selections of this book are excellent, and that the introduction by Mr. Kidd on the various topics belonging to Elocution is full of practical hints and correct principles is obvious. The evidences of Mr. Kidd's long experience as a teacher of Elocution are clearly shown in the arrangement and details of this book.

The style in which the work is got up does credit even to the high reputation of its publishers.

H.

A TREATISE ON THE DIFFERENTIAL AND INTEGRAL CALCULUS, AND ON THE CALCULUS OF VARIATIONS. By EDWARD H. COURTENAY, LL.D., late Professor of Mathematics in the University of Virginia. New York and Chicago: *A. S. Barnes & Co.*

PRACTICAL TREATISE ON THE DIFFERENTIAL AND INTEGRAL CALCULUS, with some of its applications to Mechanics and Astronomy. By WILLIAM G. PECK, LL.D., Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in Columbia College, and of Mechanics in the School of Mines. New York and Chicago: *A. S. Barnes & Co.*

These two works are excellent examples of two kinds of treatises that are always wanted, viz: a large and full one, containing a pretty complete assemblage of both theory and application, and a very brief digest presenting only the essential outlines of the theory, and a small though judiciously chosen body of useful application. For there are always two classes of students—those who need to know pretty much the whole field together with most of its subdivisions; and those others whose wants are fully met, if they make themselves master of a much smaller territory. In a school of applied science, the demands of industrial mechanics (both in statics and in dynamics) are so wide and so exacting that the pupil must conquer a very large section of the whole field of the higher analysis, and must work out a mass of minute details, and notably such as relate to special methods of integration.

Now the one book, in this country, that meets just this want is Courtenay's Calculus; and it does meet it admirably.

It is quite unnecessary to go mueh into particulars; but we must not neglect to call attention to the conscientious thoroughness with which the foundation-principles are investigated and established. There is no taking of short cuts to results for the sake of slipping around difficulties. The Calculus *has* difficulties which the learner must meet right at the very threshold of the subject. With admirable rigor does Professor Courtenay carry the beginner through and over those—not around them.

As for the rest, it is enough to say that one who has faithfully worked his way through Courtenay, has no need to fear encountering any of the integrals in the great works upon applied mechanics of Moseley or of Rankine.

For the other kind of learners, Professor Peck's work makes an excellent hand-book. All the great essentials are there, both of the differential and the integral calculus. There is all that is wanted or that is useful in an ordinary college course of mathematics; none but special mathematical students ever need any more.

It has, moreover, two points of peculiar merit. The first of these consists in the fact that the whole subject is treated upon the basis of infinitesimals—*that* being the only method capable of direct and ready use in reseaches in physics and mechanics. We could wish that the author had given, as his starting point, the substance and the results of that remarkable chapter on infinites and infinitesimals in Peirce's Curves and Functions.

The second point of merit consists in the fact that the book contains a systematic body of applications to useful and interesting subjects in mechanics and astronomy. We say "body of application," to indicate that these are not merely a few random and unconnected problems, but that, on the contrary, they form a connected and very valuable whole, which embraces many important things concerning the three great topics of *center of gravity*, *moment of inertia*, and the *motion of a material point* in divers kinds of paths, straight and curved and with every sort of motion whether uniform or varied.

HENRY POMEROY.

Washington University.

Messrs. Hendricks & Chittenden, 204 North Fifth street, St. Louis, have in press, to be ready by July 1st: "FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS," by C. L. HOTZE of the Cleveland High School. This is the first of a graded series of three books on Physics. The plan is inductive and comprises forty lessons—one lesson a week for the scholastic year. The book is designed for the higher grades of Grammar Schools.

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Education at Home and Abroad.

ST. LOUIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body convened at the High School on Saturday, May 13. A committee, consisting of Messrs. Hall, Spencer, and Young, reported on Teachers' Excursion to the East. Arrangements have been made to go to New York and return for $22. From sixty to ninety days are allowed to make the trip.

Messrs. Wm. D. Butler, Cheney, and Tallman, Miss Shafer, and Miss Beeson, were appointed a committee to organize the Association for the coming year.

Mr. Harris, Superintendent, spoke on the subject of Politeness. There were various things to be considered: the occasion and the persons involved. He thought that the less ceremony made, on the entrance of the superintendent into a school-room, the better. But with parents the case was different. And yet, perhaps all that could be asked of the teacher was to offer a chair and a text-book. Teachers could not stop their recitations, or interfere much with their work, on account of visitors.

"Politeness, considered in its essential nature, consists in treating every one according to what he is *ideally*, and not according to his imperfect realization of his ideal. The State treats every one as a free being: i.e., it says to the individual, 'You are self-determined; whatever you do, you do to yourself; if you act justly your deeds shall not injure you; if you do evil you shall do it to yourself.' The State says, 'I do not wish to constrain you; I will not place upon you a foreign limitation; I will simply see to it that you are limited only through your own deeds.' Thus the State is the realization of freedom. But politeness, on the contrary, is not the realization of freedom, not the actualization of the ideal of man; it is only the *appearance* of it; it is the *show* or *seeming* of what the State is the reality of. Politeness says: 'I cannot see personal defects; I utterly ignore them and look firmly on the ideal man far off in the background.' The impolite or rude man cannot induce the polite man to reflect back his rudeness; he exists to the polite man only as an ideal. Now, in reality, we are two-fold: we have each the same ideal man as our background; we are, as immediate beings, full of defects or imperfections. As teachers, we deal with children who also possess this two-fold being—an ideal and a real. It will never do for us to lay too much stress on the real side and to treat our pupils as hopeless cases. We must let children see that we never lose sight of the ideal that they may become. But the teacher must not look too much to the ideal side, and thus lead his pupils to overlook their real deficiencies. Our profession must guard carefully against the extremes, and while it seizes firmly the defects and idiosyncracies of the pupil, it must stimulate him powerfully to the attainment of the ideal which hovers just before him."

Miss Beedy gave a lesson on Botany. She spoke of the seeds of plants and the development of the embryo from the seed. "The seed contains a ready formed plantlet in a rudimentary state. The root and the stem of the plants grow in different directions, and by a different mode. The upward growth is by joints of stem bearing leaves, and the downward growth, or the root, absorbs materials from the soil for the plant's nourishment, and these are conveyed through the stem to the leaves and there assimilated.

"These materials are acted upon by the light of the sun and the air, and form the organic substance that furthers the growth of the stem, developes new leaves and roots, and continually enlarges the size of the vegetable.

"When the plant is once established, it provides for itself all needed materials, by draining them from the earth and the air, and assimilates them by its own peculiar power.

"In the beginning, however, the tender organism must depend for its existence upon the parent plant, until it sends its roots into the soil, and spreads its leaves to the sun. A wise provision is made for this purpose by the large supply of nutriment in the parent seed, or seed leaves.

"The *bud* of plants is the undeveloped point of the stem or branch. It has a number of parts ready formed in miniature before it begins to grow, and has a store of assimilated sap in the parent stem to feed upon. Buds are, however, in one sense, new individuals, springing out of the original stem, they can be removed and placed in another part of the trunk, or even in another plant of related species.

"The *branching* of plants or trees is produced by the growth of the lateral buds. These are repetitions of the main stem, growing just as it did from the seed."

The flower was described minutely. The flower is analogous to the branch of the plant, and the flower to ordinary leaves. But in the vegetable

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economy the flowers subserve a different purpose. The plant for a considerable time produces buds that develop into branches, until a period arrives when the buds produce flowers.

Now the question arises—Are the blossoms formed upon such a different plan that the general laws of vegetation, which suffice to explain the phenomena of branches and leaves up to the time of inflorescence, can give no clue to the solution of the difficulty? The fact seems to be, that, since new results are to be attained, the simple and plastic organs of vegetation—the stem and the leaves—are developed in new and peculiar forms for the accomplishment of new and important ends. The plant does not produce essentially new kinds of organs, but adapts the old to the fulfillment of new conditions.

It was stated that not much knowledge could be imparted in a brief lesson on this subject, but it was important to awaken an interest in the matter, and to stimulate a desire to inquire into the operations of nature in the vitality and growth of plants. The science of botany assumes a broader interest and more diversified attractions, when we look upon the vegetable creation as consisting not of simple repetitions of one particular form, however beautiful in itself, but as composed of thousands of species, all constructed according to one general plan, indeed, but wondrously diversified in form and feature, according to rank and circumstances, and also in the relation it bears to the mineral kingdom.

INCOMPLETE PROGRAMME OF NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION AT ST. LOUIS.

Tuesday, August 22d.

10.00 A. M., Meeting of the General Association for Organization. Brief Addresses. Appointment of Committees.

11.00 A.M., Meeting of Sections for Organization. Recess.

SECTION MEETINGS.

I.—Department of Higher Education.

(Programme not complete.*)

II.—Normal Section.

2.30 P. M., Paper by R. Edwards, President Illinois Normal University, on "Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools."

Discussion of the same by Miss Anna C. Brackett, Principal St. Louis Normal School; J. H. Hoose, Principal State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y.; and Wm. F. Phelps, Principal State Normal School, Winona, Minn.

III.—Superintendents' Section.

(Programme not complete.)

IV.—Elementary Section.

2.30 P. M., "Methods of Teaching Reading": Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio.

Discussion of same.

4.00 P. M., "Method of Teaching Language": Prof. D. H. Crittenden, New York. Recess.

8.00 P. M., Address: probably by Hon. W. H. Ruffner, of Virginia.

Wednesday, August 23d.

SECTION MEETINGS.

I.—Department of Higher Education.

(Programme not yet complete.*)

II.—Normal Section.

9.00 A. M., Paper by Charles H. Verrill, Principal State Normal School, Mansfield, Pa., on "A Graded System of Normal Schools."

Discussion, by Geo. M. Gage, Principal State Normal School, Winona, Minn.; and others.

III.—Superintendents' Section.

(Programme not yet complete.)

IV.—Elementary Section.

9.00 A.M., "Methods of Teaching Drawing": Henry C. Harden, of Mass.

Discussion of same.

10.30 A.M., "Philosophy of Methods": John W. Armstrong, D.D., of New York.

Discussion of same. Recess.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

2.30 P. M., Discussion—"How far may the State provide for the education of her children at public cost?" Hon. N. Bateman, Illinois; H. F. Harrington, Esq., of Mass.; W. T. Harris, Esq., of Missouri; W. W. Folwell, of Minnesota.

5.00 P.M., Miscellaneous Business. Recess.

8.00 P.M., Address by Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Ct.: Subject—"Compulsory National System of Education Impracticable and un-American.

8.45 P.M., Discussion of same, in short speeches not exceeding ten minutes each.

Thursday, August 24th.

SECTION MEETINGS.

I.—Department of Higher Education.

(Programme not complete.*)

II.—Normal Section.

9.00 A.M., Paper by J.W. Armstrong, D.D., Prin. State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y., on "Principles and Methods, their character, place, and limitation, in a Normal Course."

Discussion, by M. A. Newell, Prin. State Normal School, Baltimore, Md.; W. A. Jones, Prin. State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana; and others.

III.—Superintendents' Section.

(Programme not yet complete.)

IV.—Elementary Section.

9.00 A.M., "Methods of Teaching Geography": Mary Howe Smith, of N. Y.

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Discussion of same.

10.30 A.M., Discussion—"What constitutes a good Primary Teacher?"

11.30 A.M., Miscellaneous business and election of officers. Recess.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

2.30 P.M., Paper by A. J. Rickoff, Esq., of Ohio: Subject—"Place and uses of Text-Books."

3.00 P.M., Paper by Thomas Davidson, Esq., of Mo.: Subject—"Pedagogical Bibliography—its possessions and its wants."

3.30 .P.M., Paper by Alfred Kirk, Esq., of Illinois: Subject—"What Moral uses may the Recitation subserve?"

4.00 P.M., Discussion of Mr. Rickoff's paper.

5.00 P.M., Election of officers, and other business. Recess.

8.00 P.M., Address: Thomas Hill, D.D., of Waltham, Mass. Subject——————

HOTEL ACCOMMODATIONS.

All the hotels of St. Louis have very generously reduced their rates to delegates attending the convention, and guests will be entertained at the following rates, Certificates of Membership being presented at time of settlement of bills:

Southern Hotel, $3 per day; Planters', St. James (conditional as to numbers) and Laclede, each $2.50 per day; Everett, Park (a temperance house), and St.Nicholas, each $2.00 per day,—the St. Nicholas $1.75 if several will occupy a large room together; Barnum's, $1.75 per day; St. Clair, $1.50 per day; and Montana (two rooming together), $1.25 per day.

RAILROADS AND STEAMBOATS.

1. FREE RETURN.—Kansas & Pacific R. R. Merchants' Southern Packet Co.; Missouri River Packet Co.; Memphis & St. Louis U. S. Mail Co.; (delegates coming to St. Louis by this line will receive, on asking, a return ticket, good when countersigned by the President or Secretary of the Association); Naples Packet Co.; Cincinnati & St. Louis Express Line (if boats are running at the time).

2. ONE-FIFTH FARE RETURN.—Chicago, Alton & St. Louis R. R., Illinois Central R. R.; (tickets for return sold at Vandalia, Effingham, DuQuoin, and Odin); Ohio & Missisippi R.R.; North Missouri R. R.; Rockford, Rock Island & St. Louis R. R.; Pacific R. R. of Missouri (return tickets good only one day from date).

3. EXCURSION TICKETS FOR ONE AND ONE-FIFTH FARES.—St. Louis, Vandalia, Terre Haute & Indianapolis R. R.; Indianapolis & St. Louis R.R.; St. Louis & Southeastern R. R.

4. MISCELLANEOUS.—Atlantic & Pacific R. R. will return for one-fourth fare. Northern Line Packet Co. will return for one-third fare, including state-room and meals. Keokuk Packet Co. for one-third fare. St. Louis & Peoria Packet Co. will return at one-half fare. Merchants' St. Louis, Arkansas & White River Packet Co. will sell tickets either way or both ways at half the regular rates, to those presenting credentials as delegates.

Correspondence is in progress with other railroad lines, and the results will be announced in due time.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

J. L. PICKARD, Pres't Nat. Ed. Ass'n.
ELI. T. TAPPAN, Cor. Sec. College Section.
W. D. HENKLE, Pres't Sup'ts' Section.
S. H. WHITE, Pres't Normal Section.
E. A. SHELDON, Pres't Elementary Section.
W. T. HARRIS, Pres't Local Conmmittee.

MISSOURI—*Cass county* has 100 districts and employs 122 teachers. The lowest wages paid any male teacher in country schools during the past year, was $35; highest $60. Females, lowest, $30; highest; $50. School buildings are in fair condition. First-class teachers are wanted for next year, to whom good wages will be paid. The graded school at Pleasant Hill—W. B. TRUMBULL, Principal,—is one of the most successfully conducted schools in the state.—The progress of the public schools at Macon City has astonished their warmest friends. Mr. OSBORNE has had many things to combat during the last two years which would have discouraged a less positive and competent man. Now, when the sea is smooth, Illinois and Kansas, appreciating his worth, both feel covetous. Missouri can ill afford to part with him.—The Board of Curators of the State University, at its last meeting, appointed a committee to report nominations for the vacant chairs in the University faculty. This committee will report at the next meeting of the Board, which occurs late in June. President READ has recovered from his protracted, and at one time dangerous, illness.

KANSAS.—The schools in the cities and towns are generally in good condition, and will compare favorably with similar schools in other states; but in the matter of country or district schools, Kansas is certainly in advance of many of her sister states.

*The programme of the Department of Higher Instruction is not complete. There will be papers and discussions upon the following subjects:

"Report on Academies and High Schools, as Preparatory Schools for Colleges" Prof. Llewellyn Pratt.

"Superior Instruction in relation to Universal Instruction": Hon. John Eaton, Jr.

"Modern Mathematics in the College Course: Prof. T. H. Safford.

"A Report on the Pronunciation of Greek and Latin."

Discussion on "College Degrees".

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We account for this in the following facts: 1st. The teachers are qualified for the work, about one-fourth having received instruction for not less than a year in Normal Schools, and a majority of the remainder in County Normal Institutes, held during the summer months. 2d. Teachers are better paid. 3d. There is more of a professional *corps d'esprit* among them than we have seen elsewhere. 4th. The people, as well as the teachers, are enthusiastic, almost romantic, in their attachment to public schools, and faith in the excellence of their educational privileges. All work with a common purpose, for the accomplishment of their ideal. State Superintendent McCarty is holding a series of Judicial District Institutes, which are well attended. The first, at Fort Scott, had sixty teachers present. This city has a school building, nearly completed, which will cost about $60,000. It has one feature that is most commendable: two large play-rooms are fitted up in the basement for use in inclement weather. The county has 75 districts, all of which are provided with new and good school buildings. Teachers are paid from $35 to $65 a month. The second institute was held at Burlingame, with about 150 teachers in attendance. We are informed that of this number 21 were graduates of Eastern colleges, and a still greater number were Normal graduates. With such material teaching can attain the dignity of a profession. Burlingame has a new school-house, for which bonds were issued to the amount of $20,000. It contains but three rooms with a seating capacity of 225. Entirely too much money was expended in its construction. The new Douglas School at Topeka cost $42,000 in cash.—Eureka, *Greenwood county*, has voted bonds for a $15,000 school-house.

Iowa.—Educational matters are moving in the right direction. The Normal department of the State University is rapidly becoming what it should be. Several of the colleges of the state have made arrangements to instruct, each year, in approved methods of teaching. As in most Western colleges, there are many who attend for only a brief time,—never intending to take a full course,—and then go out to teach for a term of years. This arrangement has been of incalculable benefit to the public schools. To Prof. G. T. Carpenter, of Oskaloosa College, belongs the honor of having instructed the first class in the state on this plan. The state has made an appropriation for one institute yearly in each county, and teachers failing to attend are liable to have their certificates revoked. In many counties, too, there have been special institutes of four to eight weeks, which have been well attended. All these have tended to make a class of teachers well qualified for their work. An effort is now being made to build a Normal School in the northern part of the State. The town making the most liberal offer will secure it. Although not fully determined upon, it is generally conceded that Waterloo will be the fortunate place.—Hawkeye.

New York City.—For some time past there has been considerable agitation in reference to the introduction of the natural sciences as regular branches of instruction in the public schools. The New York *Star* very pertinently asserts, and it cannot be contradicted, that natural sciences are as easy of attainment as grammar, geometry, and other subjects taught in our public schools; and they have the advantage, besides, of being more attractive and congenial. As regular branches of school instruction, they have been recommended to the Board of Education by Sup'ts. Randall and Kiddle. The necessity for such instruction is recognized by the system of education which exists in New York, but it is not adequately provided for.

Ohio.—The legislature has prohibited by law any changes in the series of books used in the public schools oftener than once in three years, and permits it then only when demanded by a vote of two-thirds of the school-boards. Whether a total prohibition without the consent of a majority of the parents in the district would not have been better, is, perhaps, an open question, but the legislators deserve credit for setting an example in the right direction.

Punishment in Schools.—The Board of Aldermen of Washington has passed a resolution prohibiting superintendents, trustees, or other persons in, or connected with, any of the public schools of Washington, by reason of such relation, to inflict punishment upon the person of any pupil belonging to any of the said schools, whether by the application of blows, or by a constrained position of the person; or by protracted standing, or by a coerced exposure of any pupil to heat, or to cold, or to darkness, or to solitude; or by denying the privilege of water, or gratification of any reasonable desire, or by detention in the school-house after dismissal or the intermission of school, or by the requirement of excessive study, or in any other manner.

There are now about two hundred Japanese students in various institutions in the United States. Nearly all of them, it is said, are making commendable progress.

The President of the University of Athens, Greece, is elected annually.

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OF

MR. O. H. FETHERS:

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

The public reading of Ogden Hoffman Fethers, on New Year's night, for the benefit of the Young Men's Christian Association, was one of the finest treats our people have enjoyed for many days. Mr. Fethers has a voice of remarkable compass and flexibility, and can go through with all the changes of passion, mirth, or pathos, in a manner that makes one FEEL what he reads. His rendering of Poe's poem of "The Bells" was magnificent; he made all cry with his "Will the New Year come to-night, mamma?" and he strained whalebones fearfully with Sam Weller's "Walentine" and Sam Johnson's "Rat-tan Terrier." We wish we had space to speak of him further, but we can only say in general terms, that he is by far the most pleasing and accomplished elocutionist we have ever heard in our city.—[Indianapolis Daily Journal.

Last night the Grand Avenue Baptist Church was filled to overflowing with an intelligent and appreciative audience, who assembled to hear the gifted young elocutionist, Mr. O. H. Fethers. The audience was highly entertained by the recitations given, and unstinted applause frequently testified their warm approbation of the efforts of the talented gentleman. In pathos and humor Mr. Fethers shows equal ability. "Paul Dombey's death," from Dickens, was read in a style that could hardly be excelled, and subdued many to tears. In his humorous pieces the reader was excessively funny, and his comical delineations elicited the utmost merriment. All present were greatly pleased, and whenever the gentleman chooses to give us the pleasure of another similar entertainment he will again have a crowded hall.—[Kansas City Daily Bulletin.

Mr. Fethers is a host. His recital of "The Bells" was marvellous. The tinkling of the merry sleigh bells was beautifully imitated, but when he depicted the hoarse alarm bells, his voice rising, swelling, vibrating throughout the house, it was grand, almost awful. Truly, there is magic in his voice. "Will the New Year come to-night, mamma?" was very touching, and delineated so truly as to be really painful. His "Lord Lovel" was funnier than any Lord Lovel we ever heard. He labors in a good cause, and we bid him God speed. May his success be such as his talents deserve. —[Hannibal Daily Courier.

Mr. Fethers excels by far any elocutionist that has heretofore visited our city.—[St. Joseph Daily Herald.

Mr. Fethers is at the head of his profession in the West.—[Leavenworth Daily Times.

Mr. Fethers held the large audience spell-bound and charmed.—[St. Louis Democrat.

Mr. Fethers was in excellent voice, and read in h elegant and artistic manner. The first selection w master-piece "The Bells." No one can form anyth an adequate notion of his marvellous rendition hearing it. The compass, strength, and purity of v exhibited was wonderful. The hearer can scarcely that it is a human voice, and not the ringing of sleigh bells" on the night air; the mellow, full, rich the "wedding bells;" the wild alarm of "fire bells the weird, awe-inspiring tolling of the "funeral "The Famine," "The Grave by the Lake," "D Stokes," and selections from Dickens' "Christmas C comprised the remainder of the readings. The rea "Christmas Carol" exhibited his remarkable power lineation of character in the hard, grinding, old Scroo Christmas dinner of Bob Cratchit, and the awaken Scrooge to a new life. Never before have we hea pathos and humor of Dickens so admirably pres Laughter and tears alternated throughout its rendi [Cincinnati Daily Commercial.

A finer elocutionary effort it has never been our lot ness. "The Famine," as recited by him, drew the in of the audience with painful intensity, and Sam W "Walentine" could not have been rendered with finer for there the identical son, with his discriminating stood before you with all their marked character "Youthful Oratory" was excessively comic, an "Death of Little Paul" was made so vividly touching draw tears from every eye. As an elocutionist and de tor, we hold that Mr. Fethers is scarcely excelled by Murdoch.—[Leavenworth Daily Commercial.

TALENT APPRECIATED.—"Charming," "wonde "an artist," "a greater imitator than Gough," " heard such bells rung by a human voice," "what a spl entertainment," were some of the expressions heard audience at the close of Mr. Fethers' readings.—[St. Republican.

Mr. Fethers is an elocutionist of superior merit, and el great applause and universal admiration from the au in attendance. He is particularly excellent in humor; coarse, but refined and elegant. He is entirely dev affectation or assumption, but his elocution is a simple quate delivery of thought.—[Columbia (Mo.) Herald.

Mr. Fethers has a voice of remarkable flexibility compass. As a reader of humorous pieces he has few e We do not care to hear any one who reads them bet [Central Christian Advocate.

In some respects Mr. Fethers excels Murdoch and kings of elocution.—[St. Joseph Daily Union.

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THE WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

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THE WESTERN
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

JULY, 1871.

THE COMMON SCHOOL A MEANS OF NATIONAL UNITY.

History has been called the biography of a common life. While considering the wonderful variety of elements that have been thrown together on the prairies of the West, I have asked myself if, amid such diversities, there is any rallying-point of interest and sympathy which might become the focus or center of a common life. For a time, the heterogeneity of the Kansas population was more amusing than appalling to me. It has been daily spice to my visitations, as a traveling superintendent, among the people. I eat breakfast with a brawny Canadian, visit a school taught by a Frenchman who saw Louis Napoleon reviewing his soldiers before the *coup d'etat*, call on a district director who speaks the dialect of Hans Breitman, and take supper with a Long Island Englishman, who says, after the fashion of his nation (Warwickshire), "not far from *we*," "between you and *we*," "pretty hard for *we*." The next day I take my morning meal with a Scotch Irishman, visit a school taught by a lady from Alabama, receive a call from a district officer who was once a Welsh sea-captain and is still a Welshman, inquire the way of a Dane, and, losing it, inquire again of a Swede, and finally sleep with a New York politician! The day after, I eat breakfast with a "Corn-cracker," and, after visiting a school taught by a lady from California, take a good dinner with a "Puke." In the afternoon, I am directed on my way by that rare animal, a cross between a Highlander and a Pennsylvania Dutchman, and find supper and bed at the house of a "Toothpick," who thinks my horse too small to "pack" me. On the morrow I visit a log school-house where Caucasian, African and Indian are taught on the same rude benches, to read of Him who "hath made of one blood all nations of men." I am lucky this day to get my dinner at the house of a Unitarian major. It becomes suddenly cold this afternoon, and I hurry to a log cabin, where I am generously entertained and warmed by an orthodox Congregationalist. In the evening, I examine an ample library, filled with the works of the unbelievers, and my host discourses to me of the virtues of Thomas Paine and the revelations of Andrew Jackson Davis. On the morrow, I join in family worship with a large-hearted Baptist brother, take dinner with a Methodist, and eat supper with a Presbyterian minister, who broils his own steak and is an artist in coffee. I suppose this is a fair specimen of American society, at least, outside of New England. My peculiar relations to it

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made me for a time think it unique and phenomenal. We are assured by Beecher and Guizot and Spencer, that heterogeneity is the index of civilization, that communities grow away from simplicity toward complexity. Still it will not be denied that there is need—in our democratic society—of some binding force, some unifying influence or attraction, to hold together these different and often discordant elements. A concourse of mutually repelling atoms is not an ideal state. There should be centripetal attractions as well as centrifugal impulses. The foreign elements that have entered into American life are valuable, not so much for what they are in themselves, as for what they may produce when modified and re-moulded by new influences. In other words, it is not the German, the Frenchman, or the Englishman that is so interesting or important, but the results or product, unique and surprising—which may be expected—when these shall have interacted upon each other.

Now, the public school is the crucible into which these elements are thrown together and fused. That, which in early New England history was established as the instrument and ally of one sect, has long been the common meeting-ground of many sects and nationalities. The common school is not only teaching the "oneness of humanity"—but is vastly influential in shaping our various elements into an American unity. Where there are so many causes or pretexts for separation, we should be thankful that we have one institution which the great majority of the people gladly unite to sustain. Educational matters sometimes get into politics, but they are generally treated as above mere *partisan* politics. It will be a sad day in our history, when sectarian schools take the place of that public system of education which treats the children—not as native or foreign, Protestant, Romanist, or Jew—but as prospective American citizens. Common schools in New England, and the absence of them in South Carolina, nearly destroyed the American Union. Educate the whole people in the public schools, and you will assure both federal unity and unity of national character.

JOHN H. BARROWS.

Arvonia, Kansas.

EARTHQUAKES: THEIR CAUSES AND PERIODICITY.

[*Read before the St. Louis Academy of Science, Feb. 20th*, 1871.]

Some of the most obvious of the phenomena attending earthquakes and volcanoes are of such a striking nature that observers, from the earliest times, have been led to attribute them solely to causes within the earth itself, and it is not until quite recently that any attempt has been made to account for them on anything like a cosmical basis.

From the fact that smoke, flame, and molten lava were seen to issue from the craters and sides of volcanoes, and that these were often preceded by earthquakes of greater or less violence, it has always been a favorite theory to suppose the interior of the earth to be in a melted state, and that forces from within caused all the various phenomena. This melted matter was the Pyriphlegethon of Plato, into which flowed streams of water, thus causing boiling water, mud, and fire to be ejected. Though the other ancient writers do not express themselves with that clearness with which Plato does, the idea of some sort of a subterranean fire was quite general

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among them. In later times, as the several branches of science have progressed, this idea has become more fully developed, and the investigations of Fourier, La Place, and Sir Wm. Herschel, together with the discoveries in modern geology, seem to have established, beyond a doubt, that the earth is still in a semi-fluid condition, having only a comparatively thin crust of solid matter on the outside. Based upon this theory, attempts have been made to account for all seismic phenomena.

Humboldt, in his *Cosmos*, says: "In a general view of nature, all these phenomena are fused together in one sole idea of the re-action of the interior of a planet on its external surface. We thus recognize in the depths of the earth, and in its increase of temperature with the increase of depth from the surface, not only the germ of disturbing movements, but also of the gradual elevation of whole continents, of volcanic eruptions, and of the manifold productions of mountains and mineral masses."

The necessary contraction attending the gradual cooling of the crust of the earth is supposed by some to have caused a pressure upon the melted matter within, and thus to have forced it out through the crust, thereby causing mountains to be thrown up in some places, and a subsidence in others. Of this there can be hardly room for a doubt, and especially must this have been the case in the earlier stages of the cooling process. The fact that nearly all of the modern volcanoes are situated near large bodies of water, has also led eminent scientific men to the conclusion that volcanic eruptions are caused by the water finding its way down to the melted matter and being converted into steam. This theory, however, cannot be said to be fully established, though it may be true in some cases.

Sir John F. W. Herschel accounts for certain upheavals by the fact that constant erosion produces a thinning of the crust in some places and a consequent thickening in others where this detritus is deposited, and that the additional weight of the superimposed mass causes a sinking at that point and a breaking and upheaval at the thinner parts. As an illustration of this kind of action, he cites the earthquake in the year 1819, which raised the Ullah Bund in Cutch, where, not far from the coast line, the inland country rose ten feet, while much of the sea-coast, and, probably, a large tract in the Indian ocean, sank considerably below its former level; also, the earthquake of November 19, 1822, when the whole coast line of Chili, for one hundred miles about Valparaiso, together with the chain of the Andes, was hoisted, in a single night, from two to seven feet above its previous position.

Others have speculated on the probability of spontaneous chemical changes taking place beneath the surface, and thus causing explosions, eruptions, and undulations.

I have thus briefly mentioned these various well-known theories lest, in my subsequent suggestions, I may be understood as denying the truth of them. This I am far from doing, but I do deny that seismic action depends *entirely* on forces having their origin within or upon the earth itself, and shall try to show that these forces are *called into action* by some other agent outside of, and distant from it, that may be as universal as gravitation itself. If they are not so called into action, there is no reason to suppose that they would exhibit any tendency to a periodicity, but that the times of their manifestations would be purely accidental. Some have thought that this external agent might possibly be gravitation, and that, if the earth's crust is as thin as M. Cordier asserts,

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the action of the sun and moon would produce quite a perceptible tide.

Apparently with this idea in view, M. Alexis Perrey has made a long and exceedingly careful study of the subject of earthquakes and their phenomena, particularly with reference to the moon's age and the exact times of the moon's passage over the meridian. His communications to the Academy of Sciences at Paris caused the appointment of a commission, by that body, to report on the subject, and on June 12, 1854, they made a report, from a translation of which I extract the following:

"M. Alexis Perrey has succeeded by the simple analysis of catalogues which he had previously drawn up, in proving, by three different and independent methods, the influence which the moon possesses in the production of earthquakes—

"1st. That earthquakes occur more frequently at the Syzygies.

"2d. That their frequency increases at the Perigee, and diminishes at the Apogee of the moon.

"3d. That the shocks of earthquakes are more frequent when the moon is near the meridian than when she is ninety degrees away from it.

"But the numerical tables, from which these three propositions are derived, present some anomalies, and the author has omitted nothing to endeavor to account for them, and to prove the law which is revealed at their first inspection."

Now, it seems to me that these anomalies cannot be explained by the theory of tides occasioned by the unequal gravitation towards the moon, as the tides of the ocean are produced; but I think it can be shown that they are caused by the other heavenly bodies, some of which produce even greater seismic effects than the moon. Dr. C. F. Winslow, in a work entitled *Force and Nature*, has taken the tables prepared by M. Perrey, and also those of the Messrs. Mallet, and without any alteration of them, but simply by calling the reader's attention to the fact, has shown that the number of earthquakes during the seasons of perihelion is largely in excess of the seasons of aphelion, and that the sun's effect upon them is greater than that of the moon. Dr. Winslow, however, thinks that this is due to a certain repulsive force which creates disturbances within the earth at the time of its perihelion, similar to those seen to take place in comets while passing their perihelion. Precisely what this repulsive force is he has not fully shown, though the facts supposed to be connected therewith are undoubtedly correct.

I now come to the theory according to which I propose to show that very many, if not all, of the known seismic phenomena may be caused, and it is this—

That there are currents of electricity continually circulating within the earth.

That, as the earth is composed of a great diversity of materials, its conducting power is by no means uniform, and, consequently, electricity must accumulate in certain places, thus producing intense heat and chemical action, whereby result tremblings, explosions, and eruptions of gas, steam, water, mud, ashes, and melted lava, according to circumstances.

That the amount of this electrical action and disturbance is controlled largely by the other heavenly bodies, and varies according to their different positions relative to each other and to the earth.

That there are currents of electricity continually circulating around and within the earth and that the sun influences them, has been so clearly proved

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by others as to require no further demonstration. That they may become sufficiently intense to fuse or volatilize any known substance cannot be doubted when we consider the effects which Sir Humphrey Davy produced simply by artificial means. On this subject of electric or magnetic currents I quote the following from *Blackwood's Magazine* for July, 1869. The writer says: "We believe that certain kinds of rock are the favorite or special media of the magnetic currents, which are in constant action around and beneath us, and which may be regarded as the nerve force of the earth, and of all matter—sandstone probably having the least, and the igneous, crystalline, and metalliferous rocks the greatest affinity and attraction for those currents. Moreover, our theory helps to explain the *variations* which exist in the increase of subterranean temperature. The variations have hitherto been little noticed. In fact, it is only in metalliferous and mineral bearing strata that mines are sunk, and even in these the observations for temperature have hitherto been made with little exactitude. But the more this important question of subterranean temperature is experimentally investigated, the more apparent, we believe, will it become that the heat of the earth's crust does not increase steadily, but by a ratio which differs at different depths, and still more in different localities." The predictions of this writer have been fully verified by the observations of temperature in the Artesian well at the St. Louis County Insane Asylum.

That an earthquake may be produced by a current of electricity close to the earth's surface seems probable from the phenomena attending one which occurred at Schemnitz, in Hungary, June 28th, 1763, when two shocks were felt at the surface, but none at the bottom of the mines, and were only indicated to the miners by a magnet suddenly dropping a piece of iron which was attached to it. This earthquake did great damage at Comorn and Pesth, extending even to Dresden and Leipzig. Also at Stockholm, November 24, 1823, a shock was felt, and persons who were on ladders leading into the mines were so shaken that they feared the ladders were about to fall, yet the shock was not felt at all at the bottom of the mines, though it was felt even throughout Norway. At Stockholm it was accompanied by a dull sound which seemed to come down from the atmosphere, and was followed by a violent tempest. The earthquake at Riobamba, in 1797, which, on one occasion, by a sudden impulse, sent objects on the surface flying a hundred feet or more into the air, could not have had its origin at any very great depth, and must have been caused in this way. This theory also explains better than any other the peculiar whirling or rotary motion sometimes observed, and will also account for the atmospheric phenomena frequently preceding, attending, or following many earthquakes.

It has recently been shown by Elias Loomis, in the *American Journal of Science and Art*, Vol. L., Art. XIV., that the periodicities of solar spots, the aurora borealis, and magnetic declination, have a close relation to each other. The attempt has also been made by him to show that they correspond very nearly to the times of the heliocentric conjunctions and oppositions of Jupiter and Saturn, and he attributes the cause to magnetic action. He also admits that the other planets have a modifying effect upon this periodicity. Now, this is doubtless the case, and the reason why the periodicity is shown more clearly in reference to Jupiter and Saturn is probably because of the length of time, 9.93 years intervening between

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the epochs of conjunction and opposition, and also because they must induce strong electric currents on account of their exceedingly rapid axial rotation. Faraday has proved by experiment that all rotating bodies generate electricity and induce currents in others not connected with them, and that the more rapid the rotation becomes the greater is the amount of electricity.

We should expect to find also a similar periodicity in the annual number of earthquakes, if they are caused by induced currents of electricity, and, in searching for this periodicity, we should not take into the account, the violence of the shocks, for the amount of explosive force would not depend so much on the amount of electricity as it would upon the nature, composition, and situation of the substances on which the electricity might act. The Messrs. Mallet, in connection with their catalogue of earthquakes, have constructed graphic illustrations, in which the abscissa represents the seismic *intensity*, and, though there are some marked exceptions, it shows plainly this tendency to a periodicity of about ten years.

I have, relying largely upon this catalogue, prepared the following tables, showing, without regard to intensity, the number of *different days* on which earthquakes are recorded in each year, from 1740 to 1842. During the first part of this period the small number reported makes them somewhat unreliable as a basis of calculation, yet I have introduced them in order to complete a period of one hundred years, as I have not a complete series of M. Perrey's works since 1842. If on any day, more than one shock has been reported, I have counted but one, as my object was to indicate only the *number of days* on which they occurred. I have found no little difficulty in doing this, on account of the indefiniteness of many of the reports. In cases of doubt I have taken the *smallest* probable number on those years of the heliocentric conjunction and opposition of Jupiter and Saturn, while I have taken the *mean* probable number on the other years. I think that the *relative* number is very nearly correct, and that the table indicates the true periodicity. It includes eleven of these epochs, and a maximum occurs at each of them except three, and in those cases it occurs on the following year. Some smaller maxima come between these epochs that are probably due to the other heavenly bodies.

Table showing the Number of Days in each year on which Earthquakes are recorded, from 1740 to 1842.

1740	19	1760	30	1780	43	1800	38	1820	94	1840	151
1741	5	1761	32	1781	53	1801	21	1821	99	1841	182
1742	51	1762	63	1782	16	1802	119	1822	135	1842	102
1743	7a	1763	85	1783	234	1803	32	1823	104		
1744	5	1764	45	1784	103	1804	56	1824	88		
1745	4b	1765	32	1785	78	1805	29	1825	75		
1746	7c	1766	64e	1786	63	1806	31	1826	77		
1747	7c	1767	50e	1787	47	1807	40	1827	82		
1748	6	1768	22	1788	18	1808	60	1828	91		
1749	7d	1769	15	1789	29	1809	53	1829	120		
1750	10	1770	53	1790	39	1810	99	1830	78		
1751	46	1771	85	1791	49	1811	125	1831	124		
1752	124	1772	89	1792	102	1812	117	1832	126		
1753	30	1773	117	1793	40	1813	53	1833	59		
1754	49	1774	16	1794	19	1814	22	1834	78		
1755	68	1775	22	1795	61f	1815	13	1835	72		
1756	82	1776	25	1796	70	1816	19	1836	49		
1757	33	1777	34	1797	57	1817	59	1837	92		
1758	22	1778	54	1798	49	1818	61	1838	71		
1759	40	1779	35	1799	42	1819	63	1839	130		

In connection with the foregoing table, I have prepared a graphic illus-

a. Peru shaken—time wholly unknown.
b. Smyrna shaken—time indefinite.
c. Peru again shaken—time indefinite.
d. Mexico shaken—time unknown.
e. Very uncertain accounts. It may be that a very large maximum occurs.
f. Aleutian volcano formed during this year. No account of the length of time.

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tration, based upon the numbers therein contained, which distinctly shows these maxima. From this it is evident that Jupiter and Saturn exert the greatest effects in producing earthquakes, of all the heavenly bodies, which could not be the case if they are caused by gravitation, since their effect upon the tides is inappreciable. From the close relation which earthquakes sustain to what Prof. Loomis has shown to exist in reference to the aurora borealis, magnetic declination, and solar spots, they must be caused by electro-magnetic action, and this force must be a universal one, as Faraday has suggested. I also believe that a similar periodicity will yet be shown in atmospheric electricity, and that they are all closely allied to each other. The same will probably be found to be true of violent storms, tornadoes, &c. As the present year is one of those in which Jupiter and Saturn are to be in opposition, it will probably be noted for numerous earthquakes, auroras, solar spots, and tornadoes.

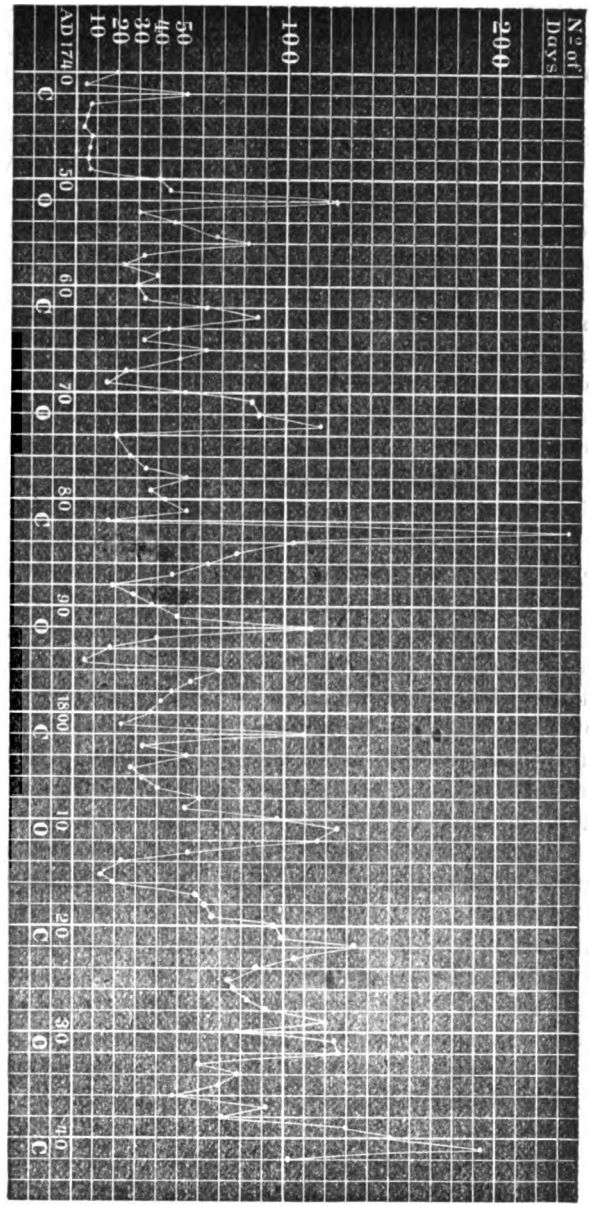

Diagram showing the same points as the preceding table.

RICHARD HAYES.

ARITHMETIC IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

It is the design of this article to discuss the following topics, viz:

I. The object of the study of Arithmetic in district schools.

II. Methods of instruction in Arithmetic.

The purpose in the mind of the writer is not so much to say something *new*, as it is to bring directly before the minds of the readers certain thoughts which have been oftentimes expressed by some teachers,

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but not understood and acted upon by all.

1st. Arithmetic is taught in district schools to fit pupils for business. A certain knowledge of the nature and uses of numbers is necessary for everyone; the more apt a boy is in figures, the better the place he can obtain in the store, factory, or counting-room. There are two points upon which business-men always place great stress: 1st. The clerk must be accurate in his calculations. 2d. He must be able to reckon with rapidity. Now, these two qualifications are the result of a certain inherent power of the mind, developed by special training or drill, either in school or elsewhere. The object of the study in the district school, in the first place, is to impart the training, which will give the required results—accuracy and rapidity in making calculations. Evidently these results cannot be obtained, unless the mind of the pupil has the power to undergo the necessary training, and not only so, but the mind must become stronger on account of this drill. These results are but other names for culture, and a consequent development of mental power. The ordinary business of life is not carried on by men having a special talent for mathematics. The store is hardly a fit place for a mathematical genius. It is rather the place for an ordinary class of mind, well trained in the business to be done—a mind sure in its workings and quick in arriving at results. The object, in the second place, of arithmetic in the district schools is to give the mind a certain cultivation which cannot be obtained in any other way. The first object is special, the second general; the first to fit the boy for business, the second to give him that general cultivation necessary to everyone in every condition of life. It is acceded by all, that the study of mathematics gives the mind a peculiar power to trace relations. Other subjects may offer better opportunities for culture of this kind. We are not arguing in favor of, or against mathematics in comparison with other studies. We only state that mathematics is taught for the reasons above stated. If we look carefully at the two objects, they, in a certain sense, become one and the same. In the first place, we want power for a special purpose. This power is the result of culture. In the second place, we want power for general purposes. This, too, is the result of the same kind of culture. Then we may say that the object of teaching arithmetic in the district schools is to give to the pupils that peculiar culture which comes from mathematical studies. The object is to call out, to develop, to strengthen the mind, to harden it (if you please), to give it the power of tracing relations, of making combinations, and to make it feel certain of the results to be obtained. This leads us to ask, How can these results best be obtained? which question brings us to the consideration of the second topic.

2d. Methods of instruction in arithmetic. There are two methods of instruction—the old and the new.

The old method is to learn the "definitions," commit the "rules" to memory, and to "cipher" for results. It must not be denied that many persons have succeeded in accomplishing much, good results have been obtained, good business-men have been trained, and profound scholars have been educated in this way.

The present purpose is not so much to decry the *old* method as it is to show that the *new* one is more natural, more philosophical, and will produce better results. The statements, hereafter made, will be made without discussing them, because it is not deemed necessary to fill up space by discussing things that will be acknowledged to be true. First, we

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will suppose, then, that we are at the very beginning of the child's course in the study of arithmetic. It is an acknowledged principle that all knowledge is obtained by proceeding from the known to the unknown. That which is known always necessarily forms the basis upon which the structure must be built. This basis in the child's mind consists of its inherent powers of distinguishing numbers. Numbers, at the first, are addressed to the mind of the child in the concrete form. For this reason the first exercises of the child should be with concrete numbers. This exercise with concrete numbers should be continued till the child is perfectly familiar with the values of all the significant figures, and with their relations to one another, and no longer.

Secondly. The mind of the child soon begins to abstract the number from the quality. Abstract numbers are more easily used in calculations than concrete ones. For this reason the child should be led from concrete to abstract numbers as soon as possible. At this point in the child's progress, enough labor should be bestowed to enable it to perform all of the simple operations with accuracy and rapidity. In the first lessons the child was made to understand, in a measure, the values of the significant figures, and some of their lesser combinations. In the second set of lessons it is enabled to perform all of the simple operations of numbers, making a great variety of combinations, so as to become very expert. The third step should be to develop the reasoning faculties and the judgment of the child. This process has been going on all the time, but now the child has arrived at a state of advancement that will demand special attention to this matter. This should be done by giving the child a variety of simple questions, requiring for their solution analysis of one, two, or three steps. The words used in these questions and analysis should be simple, and great care should be taken, so that the questions be so *graded* that *all* of the powers of the child shall be called out. Care ought also to be used that the work should be the work of the understanding and not of the memory only.

Just here let it be said, that no distinction should be made between mental and written arithmetic. They are the same in nature and in object. All arithmetical study should be *mental* in the highest sense. That is to say, no question should be disposed of except by a complete mental analysis, the slate being used only when the numbers are too large for the mind to grasp them readily. There is one other point to be mentioned here: From the beginning, the child should be required to use the slate and pencil. Little fingers are to be trained, the ideas of form and arrangement are to be developed and cultivated. Now, notwithstanding that the slate is to be used, it should not be used to the detriment of the mental powers. The great object should be to give strength to the mind, to beget confidence, self-reliance, and the ability to do what ought to be done.

Thus far I have said nothing about the right use of "definitions" and "rules." I have endeavored to adhere to the maxim that in mathematics we proceed from the known to the unknown. Perhaps the definitions are not true, and, if true, they may be in language which the child does not understand. The simple explanation of the judicious teacher will be better understood by the pupil. The rule will either state what the child has already learned from the teacher's explanation, or else it will be an unmeaning statement to the child. In either case it is unnecessary. The writer once took up a book

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in which factoring was declared to be the process of separating numbers into factors. Now, while this may be true, yet it is doubtful whether a child would be any the wiser by any knowledge which he might extract from that definition. I will close by re-stating that which I have tried to express in the foregoing:

I. The object of arithmetical study is to give a certain and peculiar culture to the mind.

II. This culture will be given by—

1st. Studying the nature of concrete numbers.

2d. By drilling the children in the use of abstract numbers till great proficiency in their use has been obtained.

3d. There should be no distinction made between mental and written arithmetic.

4th. Lastly, and above all, the study of arithmetic should be stripped of unmeaning definitions and cumbersome rules; and the mind of the child should be exercised in the use of numbers, in reasoning out the relations of quantities and things, till it should obtain that strength and culture which would make the boy reliable in the counting-house, and capable of thinking for himself, and of acting a man's part in the world.

St. Louis, Mo., April 14, 1871.

HISTORY IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

II.

TEXT-BOOKS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

We are accustomed to acknowledge with professional fidelity the claims which are generally made for the nature and uses of history; yet, in endorsing most of the text-books in common use, we virtually commit ourselves to the fallacy that all of history is a mere record of deeds and dates, and too often of that record which is of the least value to the student. Now, as in the time of Cowper,—

> "Some write a narrative of wars and feats,
> Of heroes little known, and call the rant
> A history."

Could an apology be given for this defect in our text-books, it might be that these lessons of "philosophy teaching by experience" would be prejudiced opinions, and therefore dangerous; or, if not, that they would be useless to pupils of immature minds. But would these principles and causes, carefully wrought into their proper places, be more useless or dangerous than the oral deductions which the good teacher makes in his classes. I do not now refer to those portions of universal history where the jealousies of sects and parties may find full scope for expression. These jealousies may prevent a free and candid discussion, in school, of certain historical issues, which the study of our own history as a nation does not. Horace Mann, in one of his reports, says of our anti-revolutionary history, that "Every boy who is not ruined by a false course of instruction passes through a state of mind, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, when a study of the principles and deeds recorded in that history would give some adequate idea of what Liberty and Law are, what they cost, and what they are worth."

I am aware that these hackneyed theories of reform find few listeners, and therefore must grant for the time that the practical benefit derived from the study of what Dryden terms "Annals

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or naked history" is very great, in that it strengthens the memory, improves language, and—if a visionary view be allowed—that these collected materials may form the basis for after study and reflection. But then the inquiry is followed by a doubt whether the school histories in use do a fair share of the difficult work of laying the foundation aright; whether there is not too much to be supplied in these memory studies by the teacher, in addition to the labor of "making brains," which he professes to be obliged to do. Our text-books are helps, not guides. If this fact were more apparent, the place of text-books in the common school would be materially changed, and the question of their use assume a different phase.

Inasmuch as memory is the chief power employed, it is evident that the simplicity and force of language and the logical arrangement of topics must characterize the good book of history. Indeed we must have sorry experiences and results without this condition. We can interest the pupil but little upon what has given him confused ideas, and, however much we may simplify and rearrange, we cannot undo the damage which a daily study of two hours upon a poor book may cause. The pupil's success in mastering the text and giving the story in a connected shape is a powerful lever in the hands of the teacher to make stronger and more correct the good impressions already received. But does the pupil have this distinct, connected idea of the story he studies? Experience of earnest teachers testify that he does not, and that just here the trouble begins. The pupil's interest is commensurate with his success in mastering the text, and both must precede an orderly growth. Without these, the feeling of discontent in both teacher and pupil grows into absolute indifference of the means employed or the ends obtained. One year after such experience not one isolated event or idea stands out clearly in the pupil's mind, but all lie in a confused, heterogeneous heap.

It is not my purpose to critically compare the merits of standard books of history. Suffice it here to point out one or two of the most prominent faults of the books we use. In the first place, they are generally too minute and exhaustive in those particulars which are of no use or interest to the pupil, but which serve rather to veil the more prominent events. The important landmarks of a nation are forgotten in the redundancy of items of no value—such as, the exact number killed in every battle, the numbers engaged, and the names of every minor officer. Would it not be better to secure a few turning points of the struggle, the names of a few of the leading men, and might we not forego the precise hour or day of the month, so as better to fix the time within a year or decade. As in a campaign, so in a colony or state, the details may follow, but they cannot well accompany a thorough and well-defined knowledge of the principal points. Those of us who learned the rudiments of United States History from the older and unabridged editions may perhaps remember, or forget, the one hundred and fifty pages of discoveries, and as many more each of colonial and revolutionary history, which were given in doses of five or six pages a day. These doses were innocently meant, no doubt, to relieve us of the malady of ignorance; but it may still be an open question which is most to be preferred, the disease, or the nauseating and deadening effect of the drug. The truth is, however, that nine out of every ten are affected with the old disease and the bad effects of the attempted cure.

Again, there is placed before the pu-

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pil too much bare narrative. Why cannot the simple laws of association, which have been known in theory since the time of Aristotle, be carried into practical use in the text-books? Every teacher knows that he must follow these laws with diligence if he would be successful, and he has a right to demand some assistance in this respect from his professed ally. Illustrations, anecdotes, biography, and, more than all, constant comparisons of events, are absolutely necessary to fix the events in their places. These comparisons may not only be of time, but also of similarity and dissimilarity. These truths of mental science are too well known to require illustration to demonstrate their importance.

The third and last point of criticism that I would make is, that books are faulty in language, although later editions are improvements upon their predecessors in this respect. Yet, in these later books, there exists a sad misapprehension of the capacity and power of the child. Quotations to prove this defect are needless. Every teacher knows to what extent he has to elucidate points which have been covered with wasted rhetoric, and all must see the impropriety of that affected simplicity which is fit only for the nursery. A glance at two or three recent works will convince any one of the existence of these two extremes of style. One more point may be appropiate here. The benefit of historical reading as a daily reading-exercise is becoming known. Experience is demonstrating the fact that the object of a reading exercise is not merely to pronounce and repeat correctly and understandingly the words of a lesson, but that it must have in view the general culture of the pupil as well. To accomplish this, it is evident that history must occupy a prominent place in the coming reading-book.

The third reason I assigned for poor results were improper methods of the teacher. To indicate proper methods of teaching any branch is but to repeat time-worn axioms, and this, too, in the face of the common, but mistaken notion that "every one must work out the problem for himself." If this means that he must fall into the most palpable errors of his predecessors, it is simply absurd. We might, with as much truth, say that the navigator must first be wrecked upon every rock, in order to gain sufficient experience to guide his ship safely. Upon whatever sea he may sail, the master should know the locality of dangerous shoals from the experience of others, quite as much in the pedagogic voyage as in any other. It is strange that we allow ourselves, as we do, to be wrecked upon those rocks which have repeatedly caused disaster to others, and which, in many cases, can hardly be said to lie below the surface. At the risk of repetition, I shall venture to point out a few of the most prominent causes of failure, in the hope of suggesting an answer to the oft-repeated question, "Why is history so dry and profitless?"

The chief point of defect is the teacher's want of enthusiasm and knowledge of the subject he teaches. He would hesitate to take a class in any of the natural sciences, without at least knowing the elements of the science. Yet it would seem that the only qualification necessary to conduct a class in history is a ready facility to use the book in prompting the reciter, thus showing to his class that he is not only a stranger to the subject in general, but also of the special items of the lesson. This "relic of barbarism" remains in this department as in no other, chiefly because the teacher is not required to bring himself up to a higher standard. Again, it is a child's nature to commit words, and, if

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we let him, he will commit those alone. It requires a little labor to teach him how to study. If this is not given, he will come to the class with words rather than ideas. His chief aim is to get through the recitation, and the teacher encourages this notion so long as he does not oblige the child to think as he studies and recites.

Periodical and stated reviews are still pursued, thus encouraging the belief that the "advance" is but a skirmish into an enemy's country, with no serious ideas of mastering the situation until the second visit. Reviews should be repeated every day, and in different forms, so as to give a good idea of the whole—just as we would study any piece of art: first, by examining in detail the separate parts, and then by viewing the subject as a comprehensive whole. This suggests the method of using "topics." These are not used, possibly because the benefit derived is not seen and appreciated. Topics, properly arranged, studied, and recited, can awaken study, encourage independent inquiry, relieve monotony, and give a wide and correct conception of the study, such as no other method can give.

I cannot close this summary of faults without alluding to a very common and serious omission of the teacher in conducting a recitation.

To "draw out" is necessary; to instruct is quite as much so. To stop with one alone, or both together, is to deny a class the most prolific source of pleasure and profit. I refer to what some one has called "preliminary questioning," which precedes the study of a new subject or lesson, and which induces a strong counter-current of questions from the members of the class, and a lively interchange of thought. This method, which is almost universally discarded or ignored, secures many of the most desirable objects of recitation: viz., the development of individual thought, the awakening of interest, and the creation of a desire to know what is beyond the limits of the text-book.

J. T. PRINCE.

Washington University, St. Louis.

THE GAME OF MEMORY.

The game of memory as practiced by the Ojibwas and Northern Indians has been found profitable in schools, both for recreation and improvement, as a branch of object teaching.

The Indian chief, or teacher, in his rude way, has from twenty to fifty, or more, sticks, cut, made sharp, or pointed at the larger end, and split at the top an inch or two. These sticks are then planted around in a circle, a short distance from each other; then various specimens of different substances (a single specimen in each stick at the top) are distributed around the circle in order, beginning on the right hand of the teacher and proceeding around in the order of No. one, two, three, &c. The Indians, or class, are then allowed to go around the circle slowly and take a strict and scrutinizing look at each specimen in the order of the numbers, one, two, three, and thus around the circle. This is done silently. The sticks, or specimens, are then removed and placed by the teacher, and then the class, on going around a second time, each one in order, is to tell the teacher, as far as possible, without mistake, what specimen is contained in stick No. one, two, three, four, five, and so around the whole circle if possible.

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With the Indians the first specimen will probably be birch-bark to make canoes, the second a little tobacco, the third the fur of a beaver, the fourth a bit of calico, the fifth a feather of a particular bird, the sixth the bone of some sort of fish, and so on, different substances in the different sticks planted around the circle. The one who can repeat without mistake up to the highest number receives the premium or reward. The consequence is, the perceptive faculties are called into exercise, and each individual will soon learn to discriminate so sharply that they will be able to track a wolf over dry leaves in the forest as well as a white man can track the same animal in the snow. You will ask, How can they do it? I reply that they do it very readily by observation and sharp inspection, by first noticing a leaf with holes in it, the middle hole, or holes, a trifle larger and in advance of the other hole, or holes, near the central holes. These two holes they know, by observation, were made by the toes of the wolf, and they immediately stick down a leaf by this first leaf thus marked and search for a second, and third, and fourth, and so on, putting a stick at each leaf thus marked. By these sticks in a row they find the course the wolf was traveling, and follow on till they find where the animal drank at a spring perhaps, and then soon discover his den among the rocks or caves near by. By this mode of sharp inspection they become acquainted with the habits of all the wild animals, and also gain a knowledge of the different plants and trees, and turn their knowledge to good account for their individual welfare. The writer has known a scholar, by practicing this exercise, who was enabled to memorize a long lesson for a Bible-class, and at the recitation, without the book, repeat it backward as well as forward, or give any particular verse called for; and he trusts that it may be made available in our common schools as a recreative and profitable branch of object teaching.

FORREST SHEPHERD.

LETTERS TO A YOUNG TEACHER.

NO. I.

My Dear Friend:

At your solicitation, and agreeably to my promise, I take my pen this evening to offer you a few hints and suggestions pertaining to the business in which you are about to engage—*school-teaching;* and I shall do so the more freely in consideration that you are young and inexperienced, and express an earnest desire to avail yourself of the experience of others, and say you wish to do well. You manifest the true spirit, and I will undertake to predict that you *will* do well.

In the first place, let me advise you to establish *order*. For the first few days, let this be a prominent matter with you. Until you have secured order—*good order*—there can be no successful teaching. Then you must aim to reduce everything to system. Without it you will waste a great deal of time and much labor, with half the efficiency and success that you might have.

I would not make a parade of my authority, telling my pupils what they *must* do, and what they must *not* do; neither would I bring to my desk hickory sticks, raw-hides, or other implements of that sort. It is possible that in some extreme cases you may have to fall back upon such means of governing,

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and whip a refractory pupil into obedience; but I should depend, for the most part, upon moral means of controlling my scholars. At the outset, I would try to establish, in the minds of all, the notion of *self-control*, and *voluntary* performance of duty. Encourage in every possible way their self-respect, and inspire them with that noble pride of doing right simply because it *is* right, and because it pleases you to have it so. You will see how much is lost to the child, in educational value, where the opposite course is taken—where right action is compelled and obedience secured through fear of punishment. Think of this.

You will need to establish a few well-considered, necessary rules. I say a few, for a few only are needed—such as would at once commend themselves to the good sense of every scholar. A strict adherence to these rules, however, should at all times be insisted upon. The infraction of a rule should not be suffered to pass in a single instance. It is just here where teachers so often fail in school government. They do not seem to realize the importance of prompt and efficient correction in the first cases of transgression. They imagine that a little indulgence at first will do no harm, not dreaming that such a course is prejudicial to the enforcement of rules thereafter. See to it, then, that you do not come short here.

You must not fail to watch *yourself*, that you do not fall into careless habits, and allow the plans that you have devised for the good order of your school, and things connected with it, to fall into neglect. *Govern yourself*, for this, after all, is the grand secret of success in managing a school well. The mere work of controlling your scholars will give you but little trouble after you have so disciplined yourself as to keep other things in order about you. But to be uniformly firm and punctual, to attend to every duty at the right time and in the right way, will cost you no small effort, I know quite well from experience; and here I will remark, that I regard this as the most difficult thing to attain in the whole round of acquirements, so *easy* is it for the teacher to slip along, "just for this once," particularly when he is in a hurry or feels a little weary. I say, again, *look to yourself*. If you are not precise about the time of opening your school; if you are irregular about your recesses, sometimes allowing them earlier, and sometimes later—sometimes giving five minutes, and at other times thirty; if your daily order of exercises is *no order at all*—now postponing a lesson for want of time, and again doing the same thing to suit the wishes of idle scholars, depend upon it, you will have confusion enough, and accomplish nothing as you should. Your programme of daily exercises should be posted up in some conspicuous place, and every recitation or exercise should take place precisely as thereon marked, the scholars preparing their lessons, and looking forward to the time of reciting as a thing of course that knows no change.

There are a few things more which I wish to say upon this topic, but I shall be obliged to reserve them for another time.

Yours truly,

Cleveland, Ohio. A. J. F.

A Couple of Mathematical Waifs.—I. The diagonal of any rectangular solid is the square root of the sum of the squares of its three dimensions. For example, if a room be 8+16+20, the distance from one ground corner to the opposite ceiling corner will $=\sqrt{8^2+16^2+20^2}$. The reason of this becomes apparent upon a little reflection. It abridges the operation one-half

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II. To describe a square about a right-angled triangle. Remembering that the measure of a right angle at the circumference is a semi-circumference, whose chord is the diameter of the circle, we can always describe a circle about a right-angled triangle by taking half of the hypothenuse as the radius and its middle point as the centre. As a corollary from this, a circle can always be described about any triangle, by taking half of its diagonal as the radius, and the middle point of the diagonal as the centre. A circle cannot be described about any other than a rectangular parallelogram.

E. A. SEMINARY.

Lexington, Mo.

ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

VIII.

The subjects of a proposition belong to the predicate, they are joined to it by their case, and such predicates are at the same time attributives of their subjects. Both belong to and modify each other mutually, but a noun modifying a predicate adverbially is not modified by such predicate, as are its subjects. In the sentence, "John was struck by James," "was struck" is as much an attributive of "James" as it is of "John," and "James" is as much the subject of "was struck" as it would be in the form "James struck John;" "by James" is not an adverbial clause. It does not modify "was struck" adverbially, but it belongs to it and its subject, and the particle "by" shows its case relation to be that of an active subject of "was struck." "James" is the agent from whom the act proceeded, and who perpetrated the act. Adverbs are not modified by verbs, they are modifiers of verbs, adjectives, prepositions, and other adverbs, and nouns having their functions modify attributives in the same way, receiving no modification in return.

OF GRADATION IN THE CASES OF NOUNS.

Nouns in their primary functions are the subjects of propositions in the sense above indicated. Analytically and philosophically nouns have two classes of functions—a major and a minor—represented by their cases. Their major cases represent them as the subjects of propositions belonging to and modified by predicates. Their minor cases represent them as limiting other nouns, or as limiting attributives. Nouns in the genitive may limit or modify other nouns, or may limit the predicate of a minor proposition, as, "His father's house,"—"He did not know of his brother's being a colonel,"—"He did not know that his brother was a colonel,"—"The brick house,"—"The stone house," — "The Thompson house." "Brick" and "stone" and "Thompson" are nouns used adjectively. In the first example, "father's" is in the genitive joined to "house" by this case and showing a mutual relation.

In the second example, "brother's" is the subject of the predicate "being a colonel," which is as much the predicate of "his brother's" as, in the third example, "his brother" is the subject of the predicate "was a colonel." So in further examples:

"He is sure of your brother's having written that letter."

"He is sure that your brother wrote that letter."

In these instances "sure" is a predicated attributive with a sub-proposition

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as its object, and governing it as an accusative. It is an attributive of "the" and of "that your brother wrote that letter."

Nouns may limit and modify attributives, both prime and sub-attributives, as, "He lived three years at Rome;" "three years" and "at Rome" limit "lived," limiting the time and place of "lived."

"The wall is six feet thick." "Thick" is a predicated sub-attributive called an adjective, and is limited by the noun "feet" adverbially. "Feet" is not an adverb, otherwise adverbs have number, for "feet" is evidently in the plural number, measuring six spaces of one "foot" each. So further, "Three times three is nine." "Times" is a noun in the plurul number, limiting "three" adverbially three times to "thrice." "Thrice three is nine." "Thrice" is an adverb limiting "three," and "three" is an adjective, having the double function of both an adjective and a noun. In the sentence above, it is an adjective limited by the adverb "three," and is also the subject of the proposition. In the sentence, "Three threes are nine," "threes" is a noun in the plural number, and the subject of its proposition.

The solecism "Three times three are nine" cannot be too strongly reprobated by those who love our English speech undefiled, nor can those who thus defile the purity of our speech be too strongly denounced, making us, as they have, a by-word in the mouth of the dwellers in the land of this nation's origin. What if the old arithmeticians could rise from their death-slumbers, and hear, over the length and breadth of this broad land, this abominable *are are, are,* coming from the throats of little urchins, and big boobies, and great professors, and presidents of colleges, and if the little fellows, by mistake, should follow the genius of their mother-speech, the professor bawls out *are* lest he might contract the habit of speaking good vernacular English. Abstract numbers are singular in English. "The number three *is* less than four," not "Three *are* less than four," but "Three *is* less than four." "Thrice three *is* nine." Bah! for our follies.

TO RECAPITULATE.

The nominative, accusative, and dative show the major functions of nouns, and their genitive, adjective, and adverbial functions show their minor uses, the genitive having the same function as the major in a sub-use.

OF GRADATION IN PROPOSITIONS.

A proposition may be the subject of another proposition, as its active, passive or dative subject. It may modify a noun or pronoun, genitive or adjective, or another proposition as a genitive or as an adjective, or it may modify another proposition as an adverb. The mechanism of language is adequate for such uses. Further, a proposition may become the predicate of another proposition.

In hypothetical and conditional propositions, the hypothesis or condition may be regarded as in the nature of a subject, out of which proceeds the consequence as its predicate. And so also in other instances, one of the propositions grows as an attributive out of the other. As "He behaved so as to injure his reputation." "He," with its limiting words forming a proposition, is the predicate.

"He conducted himself so as to destroy confidence;" "so as" are correlatives connecting two propositions, one of which is subject, and the other predicate. "He conducted himself so," is a sub-proposition, and the real subject "as to destroy confidence," its predicate. "He," modified by its predicate "behaved," and it modified by "so," making it a sub-proposition, is the sub-

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ject of "as to destroy confidence." The full meaning of the correlative "so" is known by the consequences which the predicate relates. The first proposition as a subject produces the other as its predicate. It has been shown above that, that which the subject represents produces that which the predicate represents.

JOSEPH CRAPOO.

ABOVE THE CLOUDS.

A Southern sun and an Autumn sky
Rich in the glow of its clouds on high,
A landscape lit with the radiant sheen
Of its many-hued leaves—portrays the scene.
Amid all this there came a note
Forth from a warlike clarion's throat,
Calling the Union camp to arms,
Calling the desperate Hooker to form
On the right of the Cumberland army.
"Forward," he said; and the lambent red
Of the camp-fires paled with the setting sun;
"Forward," he said; and that light blue thread
Of Northern men was marching on.
Oh! Tennessee, thy storied banks
Were never trod by braver ranks.
No knight e'er fought for a purer cause
Than the creed of the blue-eyed hero was.
Onward they went, and the wagon trains,
Wending along with their white-topped wains,
Encircled the breasts of the emerald hills
Like necklaces of pearls. Thro' the chills
Of the night and the heat of the day
Still on they marched 'till "Halt," and they
At the foot of the terrible mountain lay—
On the right of the Cumberland army.

'Twas night; and the dull tattoo was heard,
Lulling to rest; and nothing stirred
But the sentry, plodding, with weary feet,
The gloomy round of his lonely beat,
Thinking of kin in the Northland home,
Gazing thro' tears at the infinite dome,
Wondering, too, in his unschooled way,
Whether 'tis true what the preachers say,
Whether God in heaven far and high
Can see the wounded freeman die,
Can see him clutch an alien sod,
Gasping in agony, thirst and blood.

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He thought of the red Chicamauga again,
The rebel shout, the comrade slain!
His blood was up, and the hero swore
By the God on high he'd die before
He'd hear that taunting shout again
Of victory o'er comrade slain!
That oath red hot from its forge of wrath
Went hissing along its fiery path
To welcome on the reveille,
To rouse the legions of the free,
The champions of truth and law.
"To arms, and don the garb of war,
The haversack, the musket, for
We gain the heights," the chieftain said,
"Or slumber with the patriot dead.
Forward the Cumberland army."

Oh direst front of hundred-headed war,
Such strife as Cain and Able waged,
And left to creatures of a day this heritage
Of woe! But onward, brothers of the North,
Stand firmly, brothers of the South, since fit
It is again to seal the charter of
Our bond in blood fraternal. No Titan battling
With the Gods e'er grander seemed than those who charged
Aloft upon that mount of death for law
And liberty. Still upward strove the staunch
Battalions; tangled in the undergrowth,
Or slipping on the dew-damped rocks, clinging
To the jutting crags, bespattered with the blood
Of comrades, who thickly lay the crooked route
Along, felled by the screeching bolts of death
Hot from the Southern guns. But brighter flashed
And deadlier the lightnings from the crest
Above, and cleft in twain those blackened clouds
Of blue, which thundered in response, their life-
Blood raining on the rocks. Another charge,
And mingled are the blue and gray, as when
The angry tempests meet. A moment calm,
Then wilder than before the carnage raged—
'Mid groans and cheers and roar of hungry guns,
While broken sabers, splintered stocks, lay thick
Upon the ground. But see! as Zephyr blows
The battle-smoke away. The Nation yields!
Aye yields; but soon returns like ocean-waves
That wear the rocks away; returns and bathes
The rugged peak with life-blood! Victory!
Victory! They hold the mountain-top.

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Above them the tattered flag is rippling on
The fresh, cool evening air; beneath, as if
To veil the mangled forms below, full many
A cloud is anchored to the mount.
The crimson day-god fades away, as he
Would bathe his heated brow the western wave
Beneath; the hoarse and weary remnant rest
Upon their battered arms.

A cheer for the Cumberland army!
A sigh for the doomed to die;
A tear for the widow and orphan,
Amen to the God on high.

Saint Louis. —FRANCIS E. COOK.

RECREATION FOR TEACHERS.

Each occupation has its dangers for the one who gives all his energies to his work. The tendency to become one-sided, and to degenerate into a machine destined for a special purpose, no occupation is entirely free from this, and yet there is a great difference in this respect. Everybody who has read Charles Reade's novels remembers how the Sheffield knife grinders look and act after their trade has cramped them for a hundred generations. The reaction of employment upon character is recognized in the statute that prevents a butcher from serving on a jury in a murder case. In Dante's Inferno we have everywhere portrayed the cramping limits of individuality which have been brought on by habitual acts in life. Man's deed is his own, and whatever he does is done to himself, i. e. he is self-determined. This is the pre-supposition lying at the bottom of all codes of justice and of all morality and religion. The difference consists in the more or less explicit recognition of this pre-supposition.

Applying this principle to the profession of the teacher, we find ample cause for counselling recreation and an abundance of it, for teachers. During the school-year, the teacher is subjected to a perpetual tension of his energies in one direction. He is placed over against immature humanity, children full of caprice and arbitrariness, full of ignorance and the tendency to yield to the immediate promptings of animal instincts. He must restrain, hold back, and repress these immediate impulses, and substitute for them the habits of acting according to the broad forms and conventionalities of rational existence. Exerting all his vigilance, all his self-control, he applies a firm, steady pressure to the material under his control, and moulds it into form. But the strain acts injuriously on him, and unless he counteracts it by powerful remedies he loses his elasticity, and with it, his balance of character. He becomes arbitrary and capricious, and full of idiosyncrasies not very different from those he essays to correct in his pupils. After his elasticity is gone, and stiffness and crabbedness have taken its place, his demeanor among men mark him out as a "pedagogue" in the odious sense of that term.

The remedy for such evils consists

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rather in timely prevention than in any specific cure. Recreation should by all means be sought by the teacher. It should be *daily* recreation. Society has recognized the importance of this by breaking up the school-year by vacations of sufficient length to relax both teacher and pupil, so that the former may regain his upright position and the latter heal up any tendencies to break from too sudden bending.

But the practical question is after all: how to use properly these vacations—how to recreate effectively. The importance of bodily exercise and fresh air, change of scenery, &c., it is not necessary to mention. I will speak of a far more important item: the recreation of the mind.

The teacher should every day while his school lasts resort to his mental bath in the fountains of genius. The perennial springs of Shakspeare, Göthe, Dante, Plato, and Aristotle, will recreate him afresh for his labors; and no other recreation is like these. He finds himself cured of his cramps both natural and acquired, so that he remoulds his own character like new material even while performing the same office for his pupils. Daily and weekly as he climbs up the steep sides of the eternal mountains, he loses sight of the lowly vale and the school house there situated, and he comes back refreshed by the mountain air and the open prospect. Intercourse with genius frees all minds from narrow special limitations, and above all this is the very best medicine for the teacher. Especially the poets should be recommended, for they best relieve the tension of the will. Study of the great philosophers relieves the mind of the pedagogical dogmatism it is so prone to fall into. Thus each day should have its vacation; and the long summer vacation should furnish occasion for still longer journeys into the realms of genius, and for quiet repose amid the healing influences of family and social life.

Mere travel, mere sight-seeing, mere rest of body, will not remove this pedagogical cramp: the mind must be recreated, born again, out of its limitations through the potent effects of the bath here named in the *fountain of youth.*

WM. T. HARRIS.

FAMILIAR LESSONS.

We are eminently a practical people, and demand for our children such an education as shall best qualify them to fill honorably and profitably their places in society. Neither we nor they are satisfied with the mere impressions that may be made upon their minds, while the fuller development of their perceptive faculties is sadly neglected or postponed until a more mature age, when these faculties have lost much of their early keenness and impressibility.

The mind of the child is, assuredly, greatly benefitted even when excited only sufficiently to receive an impression; but a hundred-fold more of strength is imparted when the impression is deepened into knowledge, which should be done at the time the impression is made.

In the absence of any one to lead their conversation, and to teach them how to use to advantage what they already know of particular subjects, children talk of objects they have seen, and in which they are interested; of their plays, their friends, proposed visits, dreams, etc., etc. Were they to

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do so in the presence of their teacher, his dignity would not suffer in the least by directing their conversation, answering their queries by suggesting others that lead them from what they already know to that which they desire to know. We talk of compulsory education; of truancy laws, and complain bitterly of the general want of interest in the schools on the part of parents and pupils. Where is the fault? The common branches are all good in their place, but they are not the all of a child's education. It is not strange that children are "dull" and listless, when nearly every source of information, saving "text-book" information, is banished from the school-room.

The children all know something of the stores, shops, and factories; of the levers, machines, and steam engines, passed by them on their way to and from school. They talk about them among themselves, and would gladly spend a few minutes each day in telling their teacher what they have seen and what they wish to know of these objects, as well as of others. If the teacher could now and then attend to these wants, and if, at the same time, correct language on the part of the pupil be insisted upon, the exercise would constitute one of the most valuable lessons in language that can be given; and if there were no other ends to be secured, this alone would require that such lessons should be given. It is of much more importance that pupils be able to express correctly their own thoughts, than that they correct the "false syntax" in the grammar. "Language should be taught as a means of expressing thought;" and this thought must be based upon a knowledge of facts. If, then, we should teach language, we must first stimulate thought by developing ideas *from given facts.* The inability on the part of older pupils to utilize the knowledge they already possess for the acquirement of additional information, is a sad comment on our teaching. We have been careful to store their minds with *terms* and *rules,* the practical meaning of which they do not understand.

Many of our best teachers, aware of some of the defects of our school-instruction, have, for their own use, proposed familiar lessons upon subjects with which their pupils are more or less acquainted, eliciting not only what they already know of the subject, but enabling them to deduce principles and laws from manifold phenomena and apparently heterogeneous facts, always insisting upon clear statements on the part of the pupils. The result is in every case very gratifying. The increased ability and intelligence with which pupils perform their ordinary school-work are much more than an equivalent for the time spent in this way.

Subjects for these familiar lessons may be found almost everywhere. Pictures, flowers, games, incidents, etc., in addition to those already named, afford excellent topics. For use in the upper grades of our schools, no better subjects could be selected than those afforded by the natural sciences. What we want in the higher grades of our common schools, is a series of from thirty to forty lessons for weekly use, properly arranged and classified, embracing subjects with which pupils frequently meet, and of which they should know something. Such a series in the hands of interested teachers could scarcely fail of producing excellent results. Pupils who have been thus taught can talk, for they have something to say; they can write with pleasure and profit, for they have facts and ideas at their command. Such exercises quicken the observing faculties, strengthen the judgment and enlarge the understanding. They also

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lead naturally to independent thought, and are, for these reasons alone, invaluable.

As music charms the ear and cultivates our higher nature, so these lessons cultivate the intelligence of the pupil, developing the mind, increasing his ability to grapple with difficulties and securing to him a firmer foundation on which to rear the fabric of a successful life.

Cleveland, Ohio. L. W. DAY.

Editors' Department.

IRA DIVOLL.

It is our melancholy task to announce the decease of Mr Ira Divoll. Death is seldom a welcome visitor, and few are its victims who pass away unlamented by kindred and friends. But in every community there are certain individuals of superior gifts and acquirements, who pass beyond the limited circle of consanguinity, command the attention and arouse the interest of a vastly more extensive sphere of admirers. Such an one was the eminent gentleman, the close of whose useful life has darkened the hopes of all true friends of education.

Mr. Divoll was born in Vermont. At an early age he graduated from Burlington University, in that State, and soon after repaired to New Orleans, where he became principal of one of the grammar schools, devoting his leisure hours to the study of law, a fact giving weight to his endeavors to secure reforms in the school law of Missouri. He came to St. Louis at a time when the public schools were the absorbing topic of debate. With characteristic energy he engaged in the discussion, and the depth and soundness of his views were, to his surprise, rewarded by his elevation to the superintendency of our city schools, being re-elected for eleven years, until the cruel disease, to which he finally succumbed, necessitated his resignation.

His health improving, he was, in the year 1870, chosen, by a flattering majority, State Superintendent; the duties of which office he fulfilled to the last, dying as he had lived, a public school man, surrounded by public school work to which he directed his failing energies until the lamp of life was extinguished.

Mr. Divoll died of consumption, on Thursday, June 22d, at the residence of his brother-in-law, in Baraboo, Sauk county, Wisconsin, whither he had gone to arrest, if possible, the fatal disease whose inroads his indomitable will had so long withstood.

Upon such an occasion, a brief description of his appearance and character will be highly appropriate.

His manners were easy and graceful. He was above the medium in stature, of a dark complexion, with a face expressive of candor and refinement. The accuracy of his insight into human nature was remarkable, and was the key to his almost invariable success in the selection of capable teachers. He was a generous man; ever ready with kind word and helping hand to assist the deserving. He was eminently practical, prudent in judgment, prompt and consistent in action. Most important of all, he pos essed a positive character,

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strong enough to assume, fearlessly, the entire responsibility of his acts, with a manly frankness that often turned into praise the wrath of a temporary opponent. Indeed, frankness seems to have been his prominent characteristic.

So constituted, it is not difficult to perceive the cause of his having won so speedily, and retained for twenty years—marked by revolutions, social and political—the enviable distinction of being considered an organizer seldom equalled; a distinction amply attested by our excellent system of public schools to-day, which derives so much of its efficiency from the man who gave them their first emphatic impulse.

Words are powerless to fitly represent the life and works of the distinguished citizen who has fallen from us, at the ripe age of forty-five, having but recently transcended the meridian of man's allotted days. His biography is his best eulogy.

It may be gratifying to those who knew him by reputation alone, that a full-length portrait of Mr. Divoll hangs at the west end of the Public School Library—an institution conceived and mainly established by him to whose philanthropy, wisdom and energy it will remain, throughout all time, a living monument.

A REPLY.

WE have received the following letter from Prof. W. T. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin, in reference to Allen's "Manual Latin Grammar":

To the Editors of The Western Educational Review:

GENTLEMEN—You have recently printed a review of the "Manual Latin Grammar," written in so lofty a style of condemnation, and so sweeping in its charges of ignorance, that I ask the indulgence of a little space to vindicate the plan and execution of that work.

The criticisms come under three heads. First, there are points which appear to me to be well taken, and which will be duly considered in a revision of the grammar. Such are that in regard to *m* and *h*, the quantity of *Aenean* (for correcting which oversight we thank the critic); and the definition of *Inflection*, which I admit to be inadequate. Further, we did not take sufficient pains to secure uniformity in dividing them from termination in the paradigms. Our object was simply to present these in a form which could be easily committed to memory.

Secondly, there are points on which I do not agree with him. For instance, our use of the word *particle* is supported by Madvig, and is every way convenient. Our table of consonants (p. 132) is better for our purpose than Schleicher's. Again, as to *root* and *stem*: in answer to your critic's assertion that "a root is never a stem, and a stem is never a root," it is enough to quote Goodwin's Greek Grammar—"in τίω the stem and the root are the same." It is not uncommon for critics to brand as ignorance what is either a difference of opinion, or an intentional omission.

Thirdly, there are points in which the critic undertakes to judge our book by a standard which we expressly disclaim, as unsuited to an elementary manual. It does not demand the amount of erudition which he has lavished to know that *Gaius* is the correct form of the name, or that it is the syllable, and not the vowel, which is long in *est*; we retained the form of the name found in nearly all English works, and the simple and easy rule in common use. So with the distinctiou of the declensions. Of course these are not *grounded* upon the genitive singular, but they are most conveniently *distinguished* by it; and this is just what we say. The time will come, no doubt, when both declensions and conjugations will be remodelled on the basis of stems. Some have attempted to do this already; but, in our opinion, the time has not yet come for its introduction into an elementary book. To quote Goodwin again: "I cannot think it advisable to call the noun usually called ἐλπίς by the strange name ἐλπιδ-, as long as the leading scholars of Europe are not agreed as to whether the stem is really ἐλπιδ- or ἐλπι-." The critic's way of thinking is well illustrated by his expressed desire that a book for beginners should "trace the changes" in the alphabet!

Our general plan of the grammar assumes two things, which are a sufficient answer to most of the positions of your critic,—an intelligent teacher furnished with some larger work of reference; and a parallel course of study, such as we have provided in the "Lessons" and "Composition" which accompany the grammar. Assuming these, our aim has been, in a moderate space, to present the forms of the language as clearly to the eye, and the prin-

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ciples of its syntax as clearly to the mind, as possible. As an experiment in this direction, it doubtless has defects which future revision may eorrect. All candid criticism we are ready and glad to receive. But the testimony of a single competent teacher, such as has been given us—that by the use of our method he has saved his class a year of time in their course of study—is worth more, as a fair judgment of the books, than cords of captious criticism.

If our reviewer would take the trouble to read our preface, he would see that, so far from being "familiar with only such antediluvian grammars as Andrews and Stoddard's," we have made constant use of Madvig, Key, Donaldson, and others. Special students like Schleicher and Corssen would have been out of place for our purpose.

I am yours respectfully,
WILLIAM F. ALLEN.

Madison, Wis., May 19, 1871.

In reference to this letter, which we are very glad to insert, we have to say that it shows very clearly the justness of our criticism. We are very sorry that Messrs. Allen were hurt by its lofty style, while, at the same time, we fail to see the said loftiness. We simply stated, as clearly as we could, what we believed, after sufficient experience, to be the character and value of the work. So far from being prejudiced against it, we had, on a cursory examination, been so well pleased with it, that we were instrumental in bringing about its introduction into two large schools. It was only upon minute examination that the faults of the work became apparent, and as most other notices had spoken only of merits, and, so far as we knew, Messrs. Allen had not objected to these, we thought there would be no harm in pointing out defects. We should say that the defects which the authors themselves have admitted, occurring, as they do, within the compass of a very few pages, were enough to condemn the book. Many points they have not taken up at all, and these we must, therefore, suppose they concede. They have, besides several minor faults, admitted that their whole plan of declension is wrong,—that they have not distinguished uniformly between theme and termination, and even that they did not give an adequate definition of *Inflection.* That their "object was simply to present these [the paradigms] in a form which could be easily committed to memory" is a very poor excuse, even if something had been gained by the confounding of theme and termination, which is not true, but the opposite. Take the case of the 5th declension: what is gained by writing *pauperi-ei* alongside *re-i*?

As to the word *particle,* neither the authority of Madvig nor considerations of *convenience* (what are they?) alters the fact that the word is a slovenly one and has been used in a great variety of senses—is, therefore, unsafe. Messrs. Allen have a convenient way of shielding themselves, when attacked, behind other people, and the plea of convenience. If they will only put themselves to a little *in*convenience and inquire into the matter, they will find that even Madvig is not always an unimpeachable authority. Indeed, at the present day, his Latin Grammar is as much antiquated as the old edition of Kuehner's Greek grammar—how much that is may be seen by comparing the old with the new edition. Madvig may count among the antediluvians.

In regard to *root* and *stem* Messrs. Allen have no reply to make, except that Prof. Goodwin is at variance with us in his views. We beg to say that, even on their own showing, he is not, although it is true that he uses the word in two distinct senses, a fact which Messrs. Allen have failed to see. Prof. Goodwin uses *stem* in its proper sense, and also in that of *theme* or *base,* a usage which, we venture to say, he would renounce were his attention called to it. In any case, Prof. Goodwin has said nothing that will justify Messrs

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Allen's utter confounding of *root* and *stem.*

In regard to the orthography of *Gaius,* Messrs. Allen's reply condemns itself. They admit that we are right, and of course they always knew the correct spelling, only it would be out of place in an elementary book to correct a current blunder! So in reference to *est,* the "simple and easy rule in common use" is utterly false and misleading, but then it is *so* convenient! We wonder Messrs. Allen did not find it "convenient" to let alone writing a grammar at all.

In regard to the declensions, Messrs. Allen's plea is again convenience. Their remarks about the time that is to come when the "declensions and conjugations will be remodelled on the basis of stems" are very edifying, and show how much they know of what has been done in this direction. They again try to shield themselves behind Prof. Goodwin, whom they try to make say the exact opposite of what he does say. Their quotation from that scholar states merely his opinion as to how words are to be *named,* not as to how they are to be *written.* In regard to that, Prof. Goodwin is at one with us, both in theory and in practice. He is very careful in giving roots and stems. We have noticed his remark about ἐλπίς in our review of his Greek Grammar in the present number of THE REVIEW.

When Messrs. Allen speak of our "expressed desire that a book for beginners should 'trace the changes' in the alphabet" they draw upon their own imagination. We expressed no such desire, so far as we can remember, and we do not admire the spirit that would try to twist our words into any such meaning. We still think that, if Messrs. Allen were to substitute for their irrelevant remarks under the heading of Alphabet on page 2 a short account of the origin and changes of the Latin Alphabet they would improve the book, do something that would be interesting, and explain why the initial for Gaius is C and not G. This, we believe, is the gist of what we said.

Of course Messrs. Allen find our criticism captious. That is a very "convenient" word, and we never yet wrote an honest, thoroughgoing criticism of an American book that was not dignified with that epithet. We believe we have *shown* Messrs. Allen's *Manual* to be essentially a bad, slovenly book; if they desire more proof we are ready to furnish it. That the book has received high encomiums in many quarters is not likely to surprise any one who has much knowledge of American journalism and the manner in which book-notices are usually written. If the authors, instead of replying to honest criticisms, would "lavish" a little more erudition upon their grammar, neither their book nor their reputation as scholars would suffer thereby.

A POOR MAN.

Wm. M. Soper, Esq., is the principal school-book agent of the firm of D. Appleton & Co. He is a wag himself, and therefore able to appreciate the following incident, of which he was a part.

A few weeks ago, the State Board of Education for Virginia was about to select text-books for the public schools of the state. Thither went Mr. Soper in the interests of Cornell's Geographies. He had been in Richmond several days, watching the corners and seeking such influence as would aid him in furthering his object. He observed that, wherever he went, he was followed, at a respectful distance, by a stranger, who evidently had seen better days, but whose dress and shabby appearance indicated want and hunger. Go where he would, Mr. Soper could scarcely ever get

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out of the sight of this man. At the hotels, the book-stores, the school-houses, the capitol, everywhere this stranger was casting his hungry and suspicious eye upon him, until William begun to fear that Messrs. Appleton's head agent would never return to New York alive. Finally, meeting him alone, our cadaverous stranger beckoned Mr. Soper to follow him, which he did, trembling for his life, but determined to see the bottom of this mystery. Reaching a safe place for a private conference, the shaggy individual, after a series of gesticulations calculated to impress upon the representative of Cornell's Geographies the solemnity of the occasion, addressed him as follows: "Young man, I understand you. I have made it *my* business to know *your* business. You want to introduce your books. Now, sir, I reckon there is no man in Virginia who has so much influence with the State Board as I have. I know the Superintendent well. The Attorney-General is my particular friend. The Governor is under peculiar obligations to me. Sir, *I am a poor man*!!! I give you twenty four hours to digest this." It is perhaps needless to say that Mr. Soper is still undecided.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENCY.

When Ira Divoll undertook the State Superintendency his energy of will rose above the power of disease, and he laid his plans for the work to be done in view of what, he said, the State needed, and not at all with regard to his own failing health. It is believed that Gov. Brown has in John Monteith appointed as Superintendent a man with the energy and ability to carry out the far-reaching plans of his predecessor. He is a gentleman of thorough education, and has the ability as a speaker that will enable him to enlist the people in the improvements he proposes. He intends to make himself personally acquainted with the different sections of the State, and we hope to chronicle a series of enthusiastic educational meetings in connection with this Fall's Institutes.

There is much work to be done, and all possible aid should be given for its accomplishment.

Reviews and Notices.

AN ELEMENTARY GREEK GRAMMAR. By WILLIAM W. GOODWIN, Ph. D., Professor of Greek Literature in the Harvard University. Second Edition. Boston: *Ginn Brothers.* 1871. Pp. xx., 242.

We believe it was Kant who said that it would require a philosopher to write even a primer. It certainly requires a first-class scholar to write even an elementary grammar, and more particularly an elementary grammar of a dead language. Nothing could afford a better proof of this than a comparison of two companion works published by Messrs. Ginn Brothers—we mean Allen's "Manual Latin Grammar" and the work now before us. We have already stated our opinion of the former. Of the latter, we will first say that it is, taken all in all, the best school Greek grammar that has ever been published in English, and, but for fear that Dr. Goodwin might consider it mere flattery, we should say, the best published in any language, not excepting even that of Curtius, which is not easily surpassed.

The mechanical execution of the work is above praise—paper, type, binding, arrangement of paragraphs. Its size is exceedingly convenient. We have not found a single typographical mistake.

Dr. Goodwin's Ph. D. is apparent in every line

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almost of the book. It is the work of a scholar to whom all the great works of German scholars are open, and who is familiar with them—of one, too, who values method and conciseness more than Germans even do. We had just been reading Kuehner's new "Greek Grammar" when Dr. Goodwin's Manual was put into our hands. We do not mean to imply that the latter is an abridgement of the former, though that would not be the opposite of a compliment, but we do mean to say that the latter contains all that even a good scholar could carry away from a perusal of the former. The amount of matter contained in the 242 pages is truly astonishing. None but a person who intends to be a professor of Greek will ever require anything more—hardly even for reference. Notwithstanding this, it might be learned from cover to cover by a student of fair ability in the course of two years at most. It ought to find its way at once into every Greek class in the United States.

To show that we have examined the work carefully, and to comply with a wish expressed by the author in his preface to the New Edition, we shall point out the few mistakes we think we have found, and as it is a pretty hazardous thing to differ with Dr. Goodwin, we shall generally state our authority for supposing him to be wrong.

P. V. "The leading scholars of Europe are not agreed whether the stem [of ἐλπίς] is really ἐλπιδ or ἐλπι-." This, we think, is too much to say. The most prominent Greek scholars in Europe are, we believe, beyond question, Curtius and Kuehner, and *vide* Curtius Grundzüge, pp. 562 3; Kuehner, *Grammatik*, Vol. I., p. 329, Anm. 7.

P. 3. We think the classification of the consonants (§ 5) an incorrect one. Cf. Schleicher *Compendium*, p. 54; Kuehner, *Gr.*, Vol. I, p. 62.

P. 6, § 13. "All words ending in σι * * * add ν when the next word begins with a vowel." Would the voc. sing. of ποίησις, for example?

P. 8. "In passive and middle endings, σ is dropped between two consonants." Is not the exact opposite of what is here implied true? Cf. Westphal's *Methodische Gr. der Gr. Sprache*, 1 Theil, 2 Abtheilung, p. 52; p. 11, § 23. Do *all* dissyllabic prepositions throw back their accent when they suffer anastrophe? See Kuehner *ut sup.* p. 259.

P. 22. Are not the circumflex accents on some of the oblique cases of νεώς wrong? Cf. Kuehner *ut sup.*, p. 318 b.

P. 23. Accents of λαγώς are wrong. (line 1.)

P. 25, Note 1. Are there *verbs* in ωμι?

P. 32, Note 1. The stem of nouns in ευς ended originally in ες. Is this certain? See Curtius Grundzüge, p. 498.

P. 43, Note 3. "So ἄρσην, * * which has no feminine." This is a mistake; see Liddell & Scott's Lex. *sub. voc.*

P. 78, § 103. Would it not have been well to give a list of verbs that *seem* to augment with ει?

P. 91., Note 2. Why is ἤνεγκα omitted?

P. 96, Note 3. Why is ἰδρόω omitted? Cf. Kuehner, *ut sup.* p. 387.

P. 119, § 141. (c) Is the *place* of the article with a possessive adjective anywhere stated?

P. 134, § 168. False accent on ἡμισὺς (*sic*).

P. 143, § 183. Would it not be well to discard the term *Genitive Absolute*, and account for it otherwise?

P. 150, § 191. Why are μα and ὁμοῦ omitted from the list of *improper prepositions*? The fact is not noted that they take a dative.

One or two more small points we might call attention to, but we shall refrain, and say a few words about what seems to us by far the weakest part of the work, viz.: Part IV., treating of *Metres*. Here we find no proof that Prof. Goodwin has made himself acquainted with the latest and most profound works on Greek metres. He even retains the utterly false definitions of *thesis* and *arsis* which disgrace most of our grammars. Surely by this time every teacher ought to know that the true use of those terms is exactly the opposite of that at present current. The facts that the error is due to so great a man as Richard Bentley, and that it has had currency since his time, seem to furnish no sufficient reason why it should be perpetuated. We hope that, in his next edition, Prof. Goodwin will replace Part IV. by an epitome of the works of Rossbach and Westphal, and of Brambach.

DRAWING BOOK FOR SCHOOLS AND BEGINNERS, designed and drawn by M. H. HOLMES, Teacher of Drawing and Painting, Chicago, Ill. New York: *Harper & Brothers.*

The aim of every good teacher of Drawing must be to enable his pupils to copy from objects, and all drawing should be made subsidiary to this end, for when one has succeeded in copying an engraving, or a lithograph, the pattern is of more value than the copy, and nothing worth having has been produced. This is not sufficiently understood by teachers of drawing in America, as a general rule, judging from the character of their teaching, though, thanks to the Cooper Institute in New York and the Lornell Institute in Boston, more sensible ideas on the subject are gradually gaining ground. A pupil should be made to feel that the copies he makes from pictures are of positive value only in the light of studies for future work, and any system

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of drawing which does not acknowledge this is scarcely deserving of the name.

From this point of view, these books of Mr. Holmes are deserving of the highest praise. No. 1, beginning with parallel lines, leads through the drawing of quadrilaterals to the representation of solids in outline. In Lesson 7 and in Lesson 8 perspective is hinted at. Lesson 9 gives practice on curved lines, which Lesson 10 immediately puts to use in the same way. Lesson 11 continues the two in the drawing of the cylinder, and goes on with perspective.

Throughout, the author seems to have had in view the object of giving practice on the most familiar objects, and of teaching tacitly the laws of perspective, and no child can follow through the four numbers in hand without unconsciously learning some of those laws and being incited to try and represent the objects he sees around him.

No. 2 first introduces shading in its later lessons, and in the proper way—i. e., with distinct lines.

No. 3 begins with special practice in shading, and then uses it at once in forms before familiar, both on plane and curved surfaces, but still with perfectly familiar objects; and No. 4 goes on with books, and trunks, and chairs, and pitchers—not such as might be found in an English nobleman's residence during the thirteenth century, but such as the child sees every day in his own home. The last lesson in No. 4 is, it is to be hoped, only an introduction to a No. 5 of the same series.

Mr. Holmes has done real service by giving our schools these books, and great credit is due the publishers for the execution and style of paper. One seldom sees drawing books in which ideas so sensible are manifested, and carried out with so much unity of purpose.

ANNA C. BRACKETT.

Normal School, St. Louis.

THE HISTORICAL READER: Embracing selections from standard writers of ancient and modern history, interspersed with illustrative passages from British and American poets; with explanatory observations, notes, &c.; to which are added a vocabulary of difficult words, and biographical and geographical indexes. By JOHN ANDERSON, A. M. New York: *Clark & Maynard*, 1871.

This book promises to make an epoch in our methods of teaching history in common schools. The immense advantage of having the text-book composed by authors of genius few will dispute. Where a common mind, though it be with never so much labor, makes a book, the deficit is seen either in a want of synthetic grasp which gives details without their relation to the central principle that guides,—or else in the want of artistic power to portray the same. That appeal to the phantasy which carries captive the imagination of the reader and furnishes at once the warp and woof of his ideas is to be sought and found only in the works of rare literary geniuses. Hence, the pupil must be provided for by a compilation rather than by a book written entirely by one hand. The collection of the genius of historic writing can be so made as to give a tolerably connected view of the history of any country, or of the world at large. The vividness which is gained by such a procedure makes up for the missing links. Such writers as Everett, Irving, Burke, Macauley, Dickens, Walter Scott, Milton, Byron, and DeQuincy, make history a study in rhetoric, poetry, nay, even in the art of life itself. If Pitt learned his history of England from Shakspeare, as he claimed, we are sure that history was more than a dry mass of facts to him;—it was the garment of life "woven on the loom of time" by the cunningest of magicians.

Our author in the book before us has shown his usual tact and judgment in disposing of the details so as to give us what is essential to a correct historical picture. Part I. gives American History in a series of paintings taken from Everett, Robertson, Irving, Prescott, Bancroft, Webster, Lossing, Cooper, Parton, Hildreth, Story, and the poets. There are the discoveries, the aboriginal peoples of Mexico, Peru, and the North, the settlements, the colonial wars, the Revolution, the industrial elements of the United States,—all portrayed on the panorama with due regard to sequences, and yet with reasonable completeness when considered as isolated details.

Part II. takes np English, Scottish, and French History, while Part III. contains miscellaneous selections from ancient and modern history, illustrating ancient Greece and Rome, the Crusades, the Hunnish invasion, Fall of Poland, &c., &c. The book may be used as a reader for advanced classes.

W. T. H.

SHAKSPEARE'S COMEDY OF "THE MERCHANT OF VENICE. Edited, with Notes, by WILLIAM J. ROLFE, A. M., formerly Head Master of the High School, Cambridge, Mass. With Engravings. New York: *Harper & Brothers*. For sale by *E. P. Gray*, 407 North Fourth street, St. Louis.

SCIENCE FOR THE YOUNG: Vol. I., HEAT; Vol. II, LIGHT. By JACOB ABBOTT. New York: *Harper & Brothers*. For sale by *E. P. Gray*, 407 North Fourth street, St. Louis.

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GINX'S BABY; His Birth and Misfortunes. A Satire. New York: *Geo. Routledge & Sons.* For sale by *E. P. Gray*, 407 North Fourth street, St. Louis. Price 25 cents.

LITTLE MEN. By LOUISA M. ALCOTT. Boston: *Roberts Brothers.* For sale by *E. P. Gray*, 407 North Fourth street, St. Louis.

Education at Home and Abroad.

ST. LOUIS.—The Public Schools have closed and a majority of the teachers have gone away for the summer. The examinations were very largely attended, and the advance in scholarship apparent. Four hundred and twenty pupils applied for admission to the High School, a larger number than ever before. The Normal School graduated a class of seventeen. The various private institutions in the city have held their examinations and closed their doors for the scholastic year. June has been emphatically devoted to school interests.

MISSOURI.—A recent trip across the state has given us a very favorable impression of the progress in educational matters in this state.

At California, a very fine brick school-house is building. Sup't Galbraith is earnestly and successfully at work, and the people of the county show by their actions that they are determined their schools shall be a great success. At Sedalia, Sup't Neal has just held a four days' institute, with an attendance of 40 teachers. Some of the citizens of Sedalia offered prizes for the best essays read at the institute. Those of Mr. G. W. Ready on "Graded Schools," and Mr. George Townsley on "Capital Punishment," were good; most of the others ordinary. Mr. Neal is about to open a Summer Normal School at Sedalia. His present school at Georgetown is beautifully located, and quite successful, but Sedalia will give him a wider field. Next we stopped off in the famed Southwest. Vernon county is one of the fairest to look upon, with alternating grove and prairie, covered with cattle that have already grown fat upon the luxuriant wild grasses. Sup't Von Swearingen is hard at work. Several new school-houses are planned, and educational matters are well developed for so new a county. Next east comes Cedar county, which is more broken and off from the railroad, and Sup't Stratton has many obstacles to encounter. But he feels sure of overcoming them, and we are satisfied that his confidence is well founded. A pleasant conversation with ex-Sup't Farris confirmed our belief in the steady improvement of Cedar. Polk county is similarty situated. Sup't Race is an indefatigable worker, and keeps an excellent academy in one of the most beautiful of classic groves. Progress is evident in the more secluded portions of our state. May its onward march be rapid.—*Washington county*—The cause of our public school education is evidently advancing. New and comfortable school-houses lately built, and now building, together with a disposition to furnish these with approved modern appliances, afford an evidence. Many of our districts have estimated for school apparatus, and will run their schools for six months during this school year, instead of four months as heretofore. Our schools will generally open early in September, when we wish to add a few more good teachers to our "roll of honor." The people are electing good men—some of our best—as school directors. These are generally alive to the public interest of the masses. Our last session of the Teacher's Institute was the most interesting yet held. The session continued three days, and was well attended throughout by both teachers and citizens. About forty teachers were in attendance, and manifested a growing interest.—T. S. LOVE.

KANSAS.—*Howard County*—Our County is very new, the greater part having been surveyed but quite recently. I am now engaged in districting. The boundaries of twenty districts have been made; about ten have been organized by the election of officers, &c. The county is very large and it will be some weeks before the work of districting is completed. There will be, I think, quite seventy five organized districts. There are in operation about six private schools; no regular district school yet under way. I have visited but few schools and in these progress is apparent. Our first public examination of teachers will be held at Elk Falls June 13 next. Our first Teachers' Institute will be organized sometime

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during July or August with the promise of a good attendence of teachers and friends of education. Our County has a population of about 8000. It is rapidly filling in with a good class of farmers, and considerable interest is being manifested in the subject of schools and education. We have every promise of success indeed. Howard county will make every effort to keep apace with the times, and will be known as one of the best counties in Southern Kansas. Later I hope to inform you of better things.—R. S. CATLIN, Sup't.

IOWA.—The movement for a Normal School in the northern part of Iowa has met with much favor. At a convention of county Superintendents, held at Iowa falls in the early part of April, the citizens of that place pledged, by actual cash subscription $53.000 in aid of the enterprise, and additional thereto, a site of ten to fifteen acres and all the stone neccessary for the erection of the buildings. Webster City also sent delegates to give assurance that $75.000 would be donated by that place, as an inducement to locate there. The short sessions of Normal Schools held in some of the Counties have already worked a great revolution in the modes of instruction. Iowa School interests are suffering for lack of a sufficient state provision in this direction. The State Teachers Association meets at Council Bluffs, on Tuesday August 29th, and continues in session three days. There is at present a growing sentiment upon the subject of compulsory education in the state, and the press is taking hold of the matter in a spirit which indicates that something will probably be done in that direction at the session of the Legislature, which convenes in January 1872.

NEBRASKA.—In reading your very interesting Educational Review, and more especially that part pertaining to educational intelligence, I found a report of the schools from most all the Western States, except Nebraska. Resolved, That the educational interests of our young and growing State be represented in The Review. Carried. Nemaha county has 72 districts and employs 67 teachers. Many of her districts have been very recently organized and have not as yet erected school houses. We have some 40 excellent school houses. The average wages the past term were $40 per month. Good teachers are in demand. The graded school at Brownville, W. Rich, Principal, to whom is paid $1,500 a year, is one of the best conducted and most successful schools in the State. They employ five teachers, at $60 per month. Four hundred pupils were in attendance the past year. Their building is large—built at a cost of $22,000. Nemaha city has also a good school house, built for the purpose of grading the school. Peru has a good common school; yet her advantages for education are unsurpassed in the State, as she is blessed with the State Normal School. A fine building has been erected as a Normal School building. Yet there is another to be built this summer, which will accommodate about 300 stndents. H. H. Straight, of Oberlin, is the Principal; P. H. Martin, of Michigan University, assistant. There is a No. 1 faculty employed. Our State Teachers' Association meets in August. We anticipate a profitable session. Our schools are becoming more and more interesting.—S. W. MCGREW, County Superintendent, Nemaha county.

Cambridge University, England, is composed of seventeen distinct colleges, all, however, controlled by the general status of the University. Thirty years ago the yearly income of the University was not less than $750,000. At the same time that of Oxford amounted to $75,000.

Berlin University had 1,308 students last year. Many of the students being taken away by the war, the number is smaller this year.

The ticking of the clock at Harvard Observatory can be heard in San Francisco. This is done by connecting the pendulum of the clock with the telegraphic wire in such a manner that the main circuit is broken, and instantly closed again at every swing of the pendulum.

The old, and once celebrated, University of Bologna numbered, at one time, 4,000 students and 800 professors, and its medical school especially, was, for a long time, the most celebrated in Europe. It was there the first human body was dissected, and the first anatomical preparation made. The museum is still one of the most complete and extensive in the world, both in human and comparative anatomy. The library comprises some 15,000 volumes, and among them some very valuable manuscripts. It is a curious fact, in connection with this University, that several of the most important chairs—those of history, natural philosophy, literature, and even anatomy, have, at different times, been held by ladies.

It is with great pleasure that we record that the trustees of Dartmouth College have voted to print the next triennial catalogue in the English, and not as heretofore, in the Latin language, or rather in that bastard kind of Latin which becomes necessary in turning modern names into the Roman tongue. Soon, perhaps, at commencements, we shall have the salutatory addresses delivered in a language which the audience can understand, and not in one incomprehensible even to Masters of Arts of three years' standing. Follies like these,

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puerile and pedantic, have nothing to do with the question of the expediency of classical studies, and they, rather than else, tend to bring them into contempt.—*N. Y. Tribune.*

THE CORNELL UNIVERSITY.—If there is one kind of enterprise dear above any other to the American mind, it is that which is technically called in the language of the country "a big thing." Especially is this the weakness of this small city and State of ours. Let a man only aim at what to most folks seems an impossibility, and his work is half done. And just this is the great secret of the success of the new wonder of the New World, the great University up at Ithaca.

Big as it was at the start, each new commencement season presents new features of additional bigness, and if the college continues to grow in space as it grows in attractiveness, reckoning also how rapidly our own village is stretching northward, the two may soon meet, and it will be the question of the day which shall annex the other. The commencement week this year begins a week from Monday, on the 19th ult. The new Sibley College building is to be dedicated by Gov. Hoffman, and among the orators of the week, Mr. Greeley and Hon. Erastus Brooks, Prof. Gilman, of Yale, the President elect of the California University, Commissioner Raymond, Hiram Sibley, and other men of note appear. About fifty will graduate—the great classes coming not till next year.

For the year then commencing great prosperity is predicted. The sales of additional land has increased the annual income to $125,000, and, as a result, six new resident professorships, including chairs of American History, Agriculture, and Comparative Anatomy, have been established, and the corps of assistant and non-resident professors—among the latter Mr. W. H. Howells, editor of the *Atlantic*, as Professor of Italian Literature—will be so increased that the whole number of instructors will be above sixty. The University has within a few days received $30,000 from a private donor, for building purposes, and a seventh stone building, for botanical purposes and to include a great conservatory, is to be erected by another generous citizen.

At present, lectures by Prof. Bayard Taylor and Theo. W. Dwight are in course of delivery. The students are doing grandly in the way of athletics, no less than ten crews practicing on the lake, but the gentler amusements are not neglected, for there is a student orchestra of twenty pieces.

The University is thus proving in every way its youthful and characteristically American vigor. Its present prosperity has been reached indeed by peculiarly American methods—the enterprise of its founder, the greatness of its plans, the youthful fire and go-aheadativness of its executive, and, if we may be pardoned for saying it, good advertising in the newspapers. Let us hope that, its foundation being as broad as its ambition has been high, it may grow greater with the country.—*N. Y. Mail.*

The English compulsory education law is bringing to light some curious facts in that country. The framers of this act seem to have forgotten that a lord does not need to know anything, for its provisions apply alike to the aristocrat and plebeian. In some of the investigations which have attended the enforcement of the law, the officials have declared that they "found more ignorance and debasement of mind at the west end of London than at the east end." One noble lord sent his son to school, when it was discovered that "his mind was a perfect blank, not the fault of the child, but the parents." A lady with a "title to her name," declared that her son could not learn, "though she flogged him fifteen times a day." This is another illustration of the old adage that "there is no royal road to learning." We suspect that, if the real truth were known, there are a number of self-educated workingmen of that country capable of greatly puzzling many of their "superiors" in matters of reason and argument.

MISSISSIPPI. — About three thousand public schools have been established under the present common school system in Mississippi during the past six months, with upward of eighty thousand pupils under the tuition of nearly four thousand teachers. This is action in the right direction.

CHICAGO.—The Chicago Board of Education is taking hold of the question of woman's rights in a very practical manner by the proposition to decide the salaries of school teachers by position and not by sex. At present male principals receive as high as $2,200 per annum, while no female principal is paid over $1,200 per annum. If the latter can take charge of a given school in all respects as well as a masculine, we cannot see why she don't earn the salary.

The senior class of Amherst College has shown its sense and appreciation of the discomforts of the audience on commencement day, by petitioning the faculty to limit the number of speakers to eight. The question is not decided, but the position of other colleges should at least have some effect in making a change so agreeable to all concerned.

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THE WESTERN
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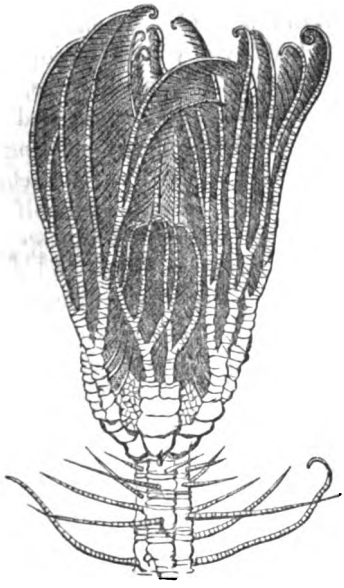
SEPTEMBER, 1871.

NATURE TEACHING.

IV.

A Lesson on Corals.

The coral animal stands at the very bottom of the series of animal life. The lowest of the four great departments of the animal kingdom is the Radiates, of which the crinoids are a characteristic example—the branching arms all radiating from a central stem.



Crinoid—(Pentacrinus caput-medusæ.)

The lowest of the three classes of Radiates is the Polyps. Of the single free Polyps the Sea Anemone is an example.

Sea Anemone (expanded).

Among the lowest of the Polyps are the coral animals that are associated together upon a common stem or base.

An individual coral animal may be described as consisting of a cylindrical pouch or bag, with partitions going from the surface toward the center, and extending from the top to the bottom of the animal. Another pouch is hung in the center of this, which is the stomach of the animal. This central pouch or stomach is kept in its place by the radiating partitions which extend from

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the center stomach surface of the animal outwards. The opening of this central pouch that you see at the surface is the mouth, through which whatever passes into the animal or comes out of the animal must go. The mouth is not provided with teeth, so that the stomach has to perform the office of both mouth and stomach in the higher animals; and, indeed, has to do the entire work of digestion, as the stomach is the only especial organ. The whole surface performs the office of aerating the blood. In most of the coral polyps there is an opening from the bottom of the stomach into the general cavity of the body, through which the digested material may pass, thence it passes by absorption through the whole mass as water passes through a sponge. The mouth is almost always open, so that the sea water passes in and out readily, mingling with the food and passing with it into the body. In some classes of coral there is no opening at the bottom of the stomach, and the nutrient matter must pass through the walls of the stomach into the general mass of the body. This nutrient matter contains the material from which the muscle of the body is made, and also that from which the coral is secreted. This coral or limestone is secreted and formed from the food and sea water, just as the higher animals secrete and form their bones from their food and drink, or the mollusk its shell. The oyster and clam places this secretion outside the muscle, and we call it a shell. The vertebrates place it within the muscle and we call it a skeleton. The coral animal also arranges it inside the muscle. That is it forms a rim all round inside the outer rim of muscle, and also along these muscular walls to the center. By examining a coral skeleton then we shall get an idea of the arrangement and convolutions of the soft or muscular parts of the animal. You see in any specimen, or in the cut on page 253 the circular pits and lamellæ radiating from them. This process of forming the limestone is then in no degree different from that of the other animals in forming their hard parts.

You see arranged around the mouth of these animals arms or tentacles. These are muscular, and a simple continuation of the vertical chambers of the animal. These are for seizing their food. As the animal is fixed in position, it depends for its food upon what happens to be floated to it by the currents in the water about it. These tentacles, in most classes of corals, serve a double purpose of seizing and stinging, and in many cases the sting is so poisonous as to cause almost instant death. The food consists of shell fishes and a variety of small animals that are brought in its way.

There is no deposit of limestone in the tentacles or upper part of the body. These remain flexible throughout the life of the animal. When the animal is disturbed by any sudden commotion in the water or jar in the mass, it rolls its tentacles into its mouth and draws itself in, which is done by ejecting more or less water from its stomach, and when it wishes to extend itself it has only to draw the water in again. It must be remembered that in its living state the solid parts are entirely covered with muscle, which is of as varied and brilliant hues as the petals of our finest garden flowers, and, from the arrangement of the tentacles about the mouth, bears a striking resemblance to flowers. The richest daisies and tulips are said not to rival them in beauty, or to excel some of them in size.

There are three modes by which the coral animal may propagate itself. First, by eggs—a method common to all animals. Along the edges of the

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lamellæ eggs are produced—just as seeds are produced along the walls of the ovary in the flower. In some classes a part of the lamellæ are spermatic, others ovarian, as in the flowering plants. In other classes there is no distinction between these two functions, as in the flowerless plants. When the eggs are matured they pass from the general cavity of the body, where they are formed, into the stomach, and are ejected from the mouth. They are then little globular bodies, which float for a time till they come in contact with a solid surface where there are favorable circumstances for their development. They there attach themselves, and there begins to be a little depression at the top. This indicates the commencement of the formation of the stomach and general cavity of the body. Pretty soon the tentacles begin to appear, and we have a coral animal ready for work, and such as I have described. A second method of propagation is by buds. All the coral producing polyps produce buds and branches just as plants do. The buds may come from the top or side of the parent animal, may be opposite or alternate, just as those of plants. I do not know a peculiarity of the budding of plants that is not found in the budding of corals. In some classes buds are regularly produced that naturally separate from the parent, and are so vitalized that they commence an independent growth of their own after becoming attached to some firm base. This may be some part of the parent coral, or any other solid surface that presents itself. This seems exactly similar to the bulbiferous lily which produces fleshy buds or bulblets in the axis of its branches, which, separating from the parent by a natural process, fall to the ground and begin a new plant, or what are familiarly known as top onions, which are simply fleshy buds produced from some of the flower buds. In most species of coral there are no buds that naturally separate, but in all of them a bud or branch broken off from the parent stem will start a new growth as soon as it finds circumstances favorable for its development, which are nothing more than the conditions supplied to its parent—a firm resting place, proper temperature, and supply of food. Indeed, a single coral animal may be cut into a great number of pieces, with a decided chance of each fragment going on to complete the entire animal.

There seems to be no natural limit to the multiplication of a single individual by buds any more than there is to the energy and vitality of trees.. The tree goes on to grow indefinitely till some accident destroys its life. It is to this multiplication by buds that we are indebted for the large coral masses. In most of the coral species the branches are very short, and the buds are produced very close together, in this respect resembling the lower orders of vegetation—the mosses and fungi—rather than the higher tree forms. In the Cacti we have, in some respects, a resemblance, where but few of the buds go on to increase the length of the plant.

Each bud forms at its extremity a complete animal, that is, it has a stomach and tentacles of its own, and the nutrient material that passes from each individual stomach must more or less permeate the whole porous mass. Just as in the tree the sap that for the most part passes through the outer newer layer of wood must, to a certain extent, soak through all the tissues, and, of course, deposit on its way a part of its contents. In this way the wood in the center and at the base of the tree becomes denser and firmer than that of the outer and upper portions. In all masses of coral we find the centre and

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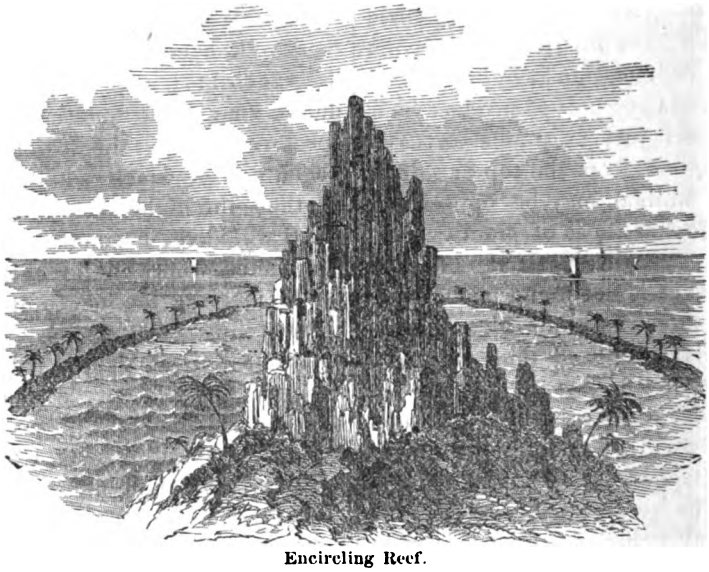
lower parts denser than the upper and outer portions. Occasionally there would be crevices left between the branches, these will be more or less filled by the particles broken by the waves from the projecting branches or by the shells and hard parts of other animals carried into these crevices by the waves.

I have given here the general mode of growth—this will, of course, be varied more or less with the different species of coral. In the brain coral the lamellæ or portions of the adjacent individuals seem to be joined together and the central openings elongate and run into each other and form waving furrows all over the surface instead of small round pits, but we still see a general conveyance from all parts to the center.

One difference between the growth of the coral and the plant is, that in the plant all the nutriment is drawn up from the bottom through the roots, while in the coral it is taken in at the extremities or buds, and need not pass through the whole mass, but will permeate the different parts of the mass just in proportion to the density—and at the depth of a few feet, more or less, according to the species of coral, the density would be so great that fluids would not permeate. On the coral islands the natives find it necessary to sink their wells not more than ten or fifteen feet to get a supply of fresh water. The rain falls upon the surface and sinks down till it comes to an impenetrable stratum, just as on the land surface, and the supply in the wells would depend upon the same principles.



Encircling Reef.

None of the coral reef builders are thought to be able to work deeper down in the sea than about a hundred feet, and most of them require a foundation much nearer the surface. Just as different vegetation and animals are found at different heights on mountains, so different species of coral will be found working at different depths in the sea. The depth at which any species will work will of course depend upon the temperature, pressure and light it needs, besides these there would be some other minor variations in the condition of the

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water. Water brought up from different depths shows us some differences in the various substances held in solution.

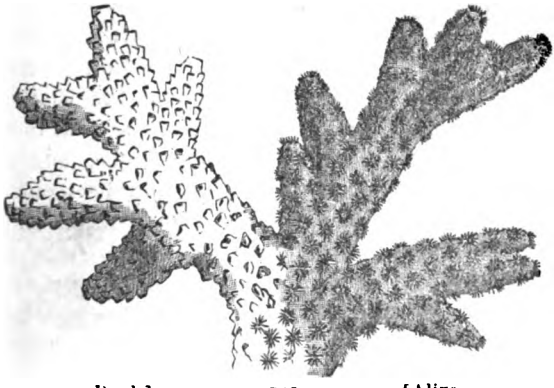
In a coral bed extending from the depth of eighty or ninety feet to the surface, we should find five or more distinct successive stories. The lowest would be built by the family of Astreans, the structure of which is very compact. Its weight is nearly equal to a stone of the same size picked up in the field. This division takes the name of Astreans from the star shaped pits all over its surface. Each of these pits representing a mouth. Above the Astreans we should find the Meandrinas—a variety of which is the brain coral, another very compact structure, though less so than the former, and taking its name from the meandering or waving furrows we see over its surface. Above this there would occur the Porites, a very compact branching coral. Above this we should find the lighter branching coral. And, last of all, sea fans and other corals of a feathery growth.

We find the order in which they occur here in a rising reef—just the order in which they were created or introduced on the earth or appear in the fossiliferous rock.

Those appearing lowest here are those that we find in the oldest rocks—and this is just what we should expect, for only those that can endure great pressure could have lived in the dense early seas which held in solution large quantities of mineral matter. And another thing we must observe here is an increased likeness to the higher vegetable forms as we ascend. The lower coral structures resembling in their rounded masses the lowest orders of vegetation, while the upper one approach the tree forms of the higher vegetation.

The appearance of a coral surface under the sea is described in most glowing terms by travelers and explorers. The water is often so clear that the corals may be seen at some distance below the surface. The coral surface will, of course, be irregular and uneven, as the land surface, so that there would be in miniature hills, valleys, and banks, mountains and plains covered with vegetation of the most brilliant hues and varied forms—some of microscopic minuteness, others attaining a height of five or six feet, budding and branching and blossoming all over with flowers of highly colored petal-like tentacles, varying in number from five to more than a hundred, just as in our roses we have the simple wild rose and crowded hundred leaf.

All the living parts of the coral are covered with flesh or muscle—but the living parts of a mass are seldom more than half an inch in thickness, and usually much less, and in a slender branch only the upper part from two or three inches to not more than half or quarter of an inch in some species. Death ever following close to active life. When living branches or masses of coral are taken from the water the flesh very soon decays and dissappears—much faster than would occur in the higher orders of life. So, of course, our spec-



Dead] CORAL. [Alive.

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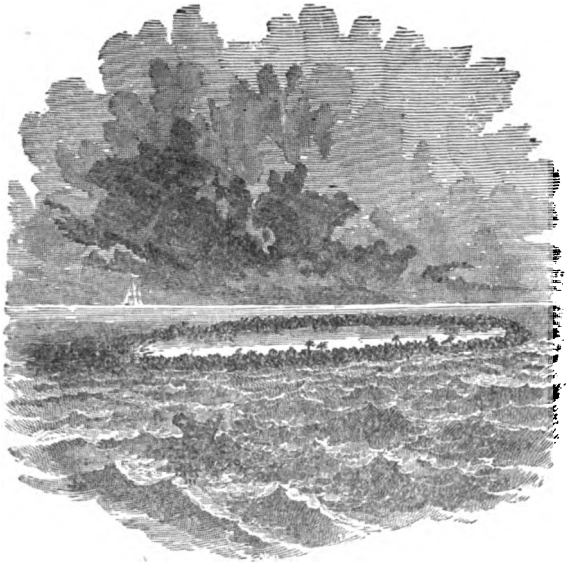
imens show only the skeletons, and give no hint of the enveloping muscle and flexible tentacles. In the external form of growth and modes of reproduction, we see an exact likeness to plants; and it is by no means strange that the earlier naturalists classed them among plants, nor that the more exact science of later times calls the coral animal and others of allied growth Zöophytes—plant animals. Yet carefully drawn distinctions between plants and animals place them in the latter class. 1st. The enveloping membrane of the living animal is animal tissue and not plant tissue. 2d. The presence of a distinct cavity or stomach for digestion, which is characteristic of animals and never found in plants. 3d. Their food is organic matter, while that of plants is always inorganic. The coral reef-builder is found only in the warm belt of the earth seldom in regions exceeding 28° from the equator.

We have described the method of growth for individuals, and the formation of masses, and now come to the arrangement of coral reefs and islands.

We have said that these animals do not work at a greater depth than about a hundred feet. So that their work must begin on submarine lands not exceeding this distance from the surface. If they begin on the submarine parts of an island close to the surface of the water, and are attached to the island they form a fringing reef. If they begin farther away the coral bank that they raise will be precipitous, almost perpendicular, towards the sea, and sloping towards the land, for the reason that the animals at the outer part stand the best chance to get food and would shut off more or less the currents from those farther in—thus the growth of the inner ones would be retarded, and as the center wall rose above them, the difficulties in the way of getting food would increase—and their growth would be slower—producing a reef shaped like the one represented on a preceding page.

In this way we would have a rim of coral formed round an island or group of islands, with a space of water between. This rim would not be continuous, as the coral would not work in all parts with the same rapidity, as the result of varying circumstances, and when most of the bank reached the surface, the lower places would act as channels for currents between the outer and inner waters, and this continuous movement of the water, with the sediment that it would deposit, would stop the growth of the coral. Now the land on which this coral bank and the island rest may sink down so that the island would disappear, while the coral bank would be again carried up to the surface. As the result of this we find a belt of coral enclosing only a space of water, as shown in the engraving.



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EDWARD BAYLY NEELY.

The deeds of a good man, nobly done, are his highest commendation. Monuments are they, bearing inscriptions carved and chiseled in characters that yield not to the devastations of time.

But in writing a sketch of Mr. Neely I dare not delineate my ideal (great) man, since I am too conscious that anything having the aspect of adulation would but pain one who is not of that pitiable number grasping for fame, who would

"Trample down honor and truth to make way for it,
Truckle and smile for the praise of the throng;"

but who is quietly and steadily moving onward in the course marked out for him, leaving the result to the world and to God.

Very reluctantly has he yielded to the earnest solicitations of his friends to let his name and portrait be given to the State that must be so largely indebted to him, through all time, for what he has done to promote her educational interests.

In connection with his life-work, perhaps a glimpse of his parentage may not be out of place.

Leaving their home in England in the early days of colonization, the ancestors of Amelia Bayly settled on the eastern shore of Virginia. Her marriage to Professor John Neely, a native of Pennsylvania, did not immediatly remove her from her native soil; the early years of their married life being spent in Accomac county, where, on the 25th of December 1828, Edward Bayly Neely, the subject of this sketch, was born. His early education was conducted by his father, who was himself a teacher by profession, and so highly did he value the classics, that among the first text-books placed in the hands of his young son, was a Latin grammar. Latin and Greek, consequently, became his favorite studies, and were most thoroughly pursued.

At Washington, D. C., he continued his course preparatory for college, and in his 17th year entered the Junior Class at Washington college, Pennsylvania. Here, his early training in classics proved valuable in a pecuniary sense, Having acquitted himself so well at the preliminary examination, upon the recommendation of the Professor, he was at once installed tutor of Ancient Languages in the Preparatory Department and Freshman class, occupying the position through his whole college course.

At one time, in a contest between the Union and Washington Literary Societies, he was chosen essayist of the former and won the honor by the unanimous vote of the judges.

In 1847 he graduated, and the honor of being chosen one of the speakers at commencement was conferred upon him by the class. He entered upon his chosen vocation the same year, being employed as an assistant in an academy twenty-five miles from Baltimore, Md., where, after remaining one year, he returned to Accomac, the home of his childhood, to take charge of a select school. A few years later, at the decease of his father, he supplied his place as principal of Margaret Academy in East Virginia, with more than ordinary satisfaction.

On the 5th day of May, 1852, he was united in marriage to Charlotte Slagle, youngest daughter of Hon. Jacob Slagle, of Washington, Pa.

Coming to St. Joseph in 1854, in company with a fellow-student, they pur-

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chased a building in which a girls' school had been held, but was about closing, and converted it into an academy for boys. Education in St. Joseph was then, indeed, at a low ebb. The few private schools which some enterprising young ladies were trying, with feeble efforts, to sustain under the old system, naturally died out. Mr. Neely and his associate, removing the ancient landmarks, opened to the people a new and more excellent way, which soon proved the strength of its own merits in the manner in which it was sustained and appreciated. But his partner, finding his tastes inclined more to commercial than educational enterprise, turned his attention to the mercantile business, while Mr. Neely conducted his school on his own responsibility, employing an assistant. After nearly six years of quiet labor, in which he won for himself the confidence and support of the people, the St. Joseph Board of Public Schools was organized, and he was solicited to take charge of the high school established the following year. On the breaking out of the war, the public schools were suspended, and he again, in his own building, opened a private school. Scarcely was peace declared when they were reopened, and Mr. Neely appointed superintendent. In the same year he was also made superintendent of schools of Buchanan county.

Under his supervision, sustained by a most excellent board, and with a corps of teachers who, inspired by his example, never swerved from their purpose, the public schools struggled through contest and opposition; through individual contumely and slanders; through foes without—though *not fears within*—all the time increasing in numbers, in power and in favor with the people, till to-day they stand an honor to St. Joseph, their banner of progress unfurled to the breeze; not ashamed to compare their embryo works with those of maturer growth.

Meanwhile, honorable and more lucrative positions were offered him, all of which he declined; for well did he know that the fate of these schools, just at that critical period, hung upon a most slender thread. Had any man been appointed in his place who had not his heart in the work, they *must have gone down.* Wishing to see the work he had begun go on, he preferred to forego these desirable positions that promised a more *golden* harvest.

With such a spirit, and the love he had for his work, it could not be otherwise than that his efforts should be crowned with success. Eight times has he been appointed city superintendent by a unanimous vote of the Board; three times elected County Supt, receiving the nomination each time unanimously; his majority at each successive election increasing, till, at the contest in the fall of 1870, he was elected by an overwhelming majority.

In 1870, without solicitation, he was appointed by the Governor of Missouri a member of the Board of Regents of the State Normal Schools; and at the first meeting of the Regents was elected President of the Board.

At present a new school house is being erected in South St. Joseph, *promising* to be one of the finest school buildings in the city. The Board of Public Schools, in honor of their Superintendent by a unanimous vote, have named this new and beautiful structure, the "Neely School." A more fitting or delicate compliment could not well have been paid him.

But the crowning joy of his life, is his happy home, in the improving and embellishment of which, he has spent many a leisure hour. Nestled among shade, and fruit, and flowers; beautiful without

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ostentation; surrounded witn many a comfort; the stranger finds warm hospitality beneath his roof, aud his friends a *more* than *welcome*. Mr. Neely and his estimable lady have learned the secret of true happiness. Full nineteen years have they trod together life's pathway, and

"At every winding of the way,
Found each succeeding year the best."

Two lovely daughters grace their home, and two other children, equally dear, fondly await them in the life immortal.

ELLA McAFFERTY.

DIFFERENCE OF CHARACTER.

Popular opinion is often spoken of by many in a very contemptuous manner. This is, for the most part, done by those who arrogate to themselves the character of philosophers, who think that mental independence is manifested to the extent to which they differ with, and depreciate commonly received notions; and who, consequently, lose no opportunity of declaring their complete emancipation from vulgar control, in the exercise of their intelligence. This assertion of intellectual freedom, in so far as it is meant to indicate a non-acceptance of any opinion, as an article of faith, and beyond the jurisdiction of reason, is creditable enough; but it should be expressed so as to make this meaning intelligible. If, however, as must often be the case, it is directed against popular opinion, as being peculiarly liable to error, it is eminently unphilosophical. It is but too true that popular opinion is sometimes erroneous, as every opinion is; but it is also true that, if it be *really* popular opinion —popular in its origin as well as in its growth, it is freer from the probability of error, and comes healthier and purer from the mine of nature than any offspring of speculation, though swathed in the strictest logic, and baptized in the most sparkling rhetoric.

Philosophy was, no doubt, for a long time not only indifferent, but antagonistic to popular opinion. Whether surrounded by her followers, in the glorious land of Hellas, or inciting her few but determined supporters in Italy; whether weeping over the imprisoned Boëthius, or smiling at the hyper-philosophical acuteness of the schoolmen, she ever "said or seemed to say" "Odi profanum vulgus." But her exclusiveness was fatal to her symmetrical development. She languished under the unskilful treatment of her bigoted ministers; and it was not till after the alliance between her and "Common Sense," so happily effected by Reid and his school, that she was admitted into every household, as one of the Penates. Philosophy and Common Sense are now as closely connected as Horace says poets and painters ought to be; and these Indiana metaphysicians who desire a divorce, only show their ignorance of the constitution they would destroy.

Now, while popular opinion decidedly pronounces that men are not all equal, either mentally or morally; that each one's nature is such from birth, that its normal development will, in many cases at least, pointedly individualize him; and no similarity of surrounding and modifying circumstances can always, or even frequently, produce

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identity of character; some philosophers maintain, either expressly or impliedly, that

"Just as the twig is bent the tree 's inclined,"

and that a man's nature is mainly what moulding circumstances make it. We consider that the opposition of popular opinion to this view is the strongest of the many strong arguments that can be brought against it.

We advisedly used the word "impliedly;" as it is more with the implication than the expression of this opinion that we have to deal. Strange as it may seem, it is sometimes easier to prove that a thing is implied, than that it is expressed. If you take words in their obvious signification, an adroit verbal chemist can frequently supply from his mental laboratory something *understood* which will change the nature of the sentences, and give an entirely new meaning. Thus it is said that, "All men are equal before God;" that "All men are equal before the law;" and that "All men are equal in a republic." Does any one believe any of these sayings? Yet does not every one know that *explanations* can be had from theologians, lawyers, and statesmen. But on the other hand, when Achilles said to Agamemnon:

"Εἰ δ' ἄγε μὴν πείρησαι ἵνα γνώωσι καὶ οἵδε
Αἰψά τοι αἷμα κελαινὸν ἐρωήσει περὶ δουρί."

he did not express his anger towards the king more forcibly than he implied his admiration of Penthesilea when he struck the jeering Thersites dead beside her. When Neptune addressed the detected winds with "Quos-ego"—they well understood his meaning; and there can not be much doubt that when Gulnare asked Conrad as to his distant bride, she implied an affection for himself which, we suppose, is the chief secret in

"All a woman feels but must not tell."

The majority of implications can not however be so clearly recognized; and that implication of which we speak is one as to whose character and even existence we may have been sometimes mistaken. But whether universal identity of character be or be not implied in the system of any particular writer is secondary to the consideration of such a view, whether implied or not. We believe, indeed, that it is almost implied in Carlyle and Emerson; but we do not undertake to prove it. We shall state briefly our reasons for so thinking. Both these philosophers maintain that we read history with profit, and enter fully into its spirit, in so far as we conceive ourselves capable of acting in the same circumstances, just as those men of whom we read, acted. This has been advanced by many writers; we only select these two "ex-omni numero." If this be true, man is indeed "a creature of circumstances," and every individual has a moral and mental substratum, on which may be built any fabric of honor, or monument of disgrace that the eye can detect, as it looks back along the highway of history. We are all mere scrolls, as incapable of altering whatever the hand of time traces in its course, as are the parchments that retain the characters of the scribe. Is it true? We think not. But we are so mortified in not being able to force ourselves into agreement with the greatest minds of the day, and so diffident of our correctness, that we shall quote one of the passages from Emerson which appears to be objectionable. In his essay on history, he says: "We assume that we, under like influence should be alike affected, and should achieve the like; and we aim to master intellectually the steps and reach the same height or the same degradation that our fellow, our proxy, has done." Now if any one, thinking it right to be thus philosophical, can so far forget his own nature as

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to "assume" that under-like influence, he could fight like Hector, legislate like Solon, and speak like Demosthenes, can he also "assume" that he could rail like Thersites scheme like Ulysses or eat like Vitellius? He says again "All that Shakespeare says of the king, yonder slip of a boy that reads in the corner, feels to be true of himself." Can any boy "feel to be true of himself" what he reads of Numa and what he reads of Heliogabalus? of Alfred and of Ethelred the Unready? of William the third and of John? If he can he must have far greater Protean powers the than Duke of Buckingham,

"Who in the course of one revolving moon
Was chemist, statesman, fiddler and buffoon."

How can every American think that, if he were a Greek, lived in the time of Aristides, and had, like him, political power, he would act as that statesman did? Why did not all the Greeks who lived in his time, and possessed political power, do as he did? The answer seems plain. Because, though there was the like influence, there was a difference of character. This is the popular opinion; and it will be hard indeed to demonstrate its unreasonableness.

But, if we prescind altogether from popular belief, is not this identity of character, or, if we are wrong in supposing that identity is implied, at least *the* method of studying history, from which we thought it implied, inconsistent with Mr. Carlyle's hero-worship? If, at is most true, we all have a tendency to hero-worship, will not such tendency be proportionate to the absence of a tendency to identify ourselves with those whom we do not regard as heroes? If we respect some individuals for certain good qualities, we can only do so, because we find that most others do not possess them. Real hero-worship depreciates all but heroes; just as real love depreciates all but those that are loved. Either, then, this philosophical power of hugging all mankind "*discrimine nullo*" as Peggotty hugged David Copperfield, must be given up, or we must cease to be hero-worshipers.

Hero-worship will survive; and this philosophical study of history, which must be based upon an identity of human character if it have any meaning, will share the fate of all *really* anti-popular tenets; but if it be an India-rubber creation that can be stretched out till it disappears, that is merely cherished because common people cannot understand its application; why, then, it can do no harm; and by-and-by the truth it contains (and it does certain truth) will be eliminated from the involving nonsense, and shine the brighter from its long obscurity.

We would eagerly grasp at any explanation that would enable us to regard ourselves as not differing from such thinkers as Emerson and Carlyle. Our very vanity urges us to be ingenious in evading collisions; though fear is by no means without its influence, for our memory continually presents to us fragments of limes, in some way associates with ideas of destruction, such as —impar congressus:"—*ἰφ Ἕκτορος ἀνδρο φόνοιο" Δούπησεν δὲ πεσών—;*" we feel ourselves, by anticipation, seized with a logical gripe that would be felt "through bars of brass and triple steel;" we realize that "vain is the struggle in that mental net;" and in short, like Micawber "the burying places of the memory give up their dead." Let us, then, suppose that identity of character is not implied in the advice given by these philosophers, as to the proper method of studying history; and that their method is possible without it. But how about the method itself? Perhaps thus. It has been sometimes remarked that in all writing where a theory has to be un-

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folded and presented in a limited space, there is great danger of undue emphasis being laid upon some points, from a necessity of making an impression when such necessity would not exist, if the writer had an opportunity to submit his views in a symmetrically developed whole. From a principle of compensation, when all can not be said, much that is said, is broadly and unrestrictedly said, as standing both for itself and something else. When Emerson, for example, says that "every youth feels what he reads of a certain king as true of himself," he probably meant to say that, "every youth of noble parts feels, as he reads the exploits of kings, a something in his own breast that thrills him with the feeling of kinship to the noblest of them, and awakens a generous sympathy that, under favorable circumstances, would manifest itself in imitation." When we try to make the passage carry more meaning than this, it sinks and disappears altogether from our mental vision. Most youths may feel that they would *like* a noble character to be true of themselves; while some at least (unless Uriah Heep be a mere baseless fiction) have no such desire at all; but "crawl enamored of decay," from the cradle to the grave.

Of one thing, however, we may rest satisfied that, here in these days of revolutionary, we had almost said, evolutionary, activity, history will be read much as it has already been read; and that from a general conviction of *inherent* as well as *accidental* difference of character, that reading will be eclectic; that we will be as far from "entering into the feelings" of some historical personages, as from entering into the feelings of Cerberus; and that most of us at least, will still decline to regard ourselves as potentially equal to "the Old Man Eloquent" or to "the disciple whom Jesus loved."

St. Louis. H. I. D'ARCY.

AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC ASSOCIATION.

The twentieth meeting of the American Association for the advancement of Science, which convened at Indianapolis on the 16th of August, was a most interesting gathering. It was delightful to see those veteran teachers and explorers in every department of science, as they met that morning in the rooms of the State Geologist, and took each other by the hand—every face radiant with the pleasure of reunion with those of similar pursuits and tastes.

The regular meeting convened at 10 A. M., and after routine business divided into two sections, and the real work began, for each man was here to advance such new ideas as he had developed, and all to compare views on the questions of to-day.

Section B is devoted to geology and natural history, and has a larger number of members than Section *A*, which comprises those whose studies are in the direction of mathematics, chemistry, and physics. In Section B a paper which had been prepared by Thomas Meehan, was put into the hands of Prof. Asa Gray to read. The author advanced the idea that the monocotyledon was the universal type of seeds, claiming that seeds of two halves, like the bean, were but a development of the one lobed form, and giving as an illustration the case of some seeds that are found half way divided, as if in the

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process of change. Prof. Gray then proceeded to criticise the paper, speaking in the unaffected and pleasing style which has always made his class instruction so delightful. Turning to the blackboard he sketched a plant such as grows from an undivided seed like corn, and one from a two lobed seed, showing how the leaves of the former are arranged alternately upon the stem, while in the two lobed seeds the lobes themselves form the first pair of leaves as in the squash, and are succeeded by other leaves that are opposite on the stem. This difference of arrangement of the leaves corresponding to the two classes of seeds show, said Prof. Gray, that the seed differences are more radical than Mr. Meehan seems to comprehend.

The great point of interest in Section A, during the same session, was a masterly discussion of the distribution of rain, by Prof. Henry, of the Smithsonian Institute. The meteorological observations that are carried on by the authority of the United States Government are continually growing more valuable and promise the most beneficial results to commerce, agriculture, and other interests.

The session on Tuesday evening was devoted to the address of the retiring president, J. Sterry Hunt, the Geologist of Canada. He opened his address with a fitting tribute to the memory of that true teacher and profound scholar, Chancellor Chauvenet, of Washington University, St. Louis, the former president of the association. He then invited the attention of his audience to a subject in his own field of geology. For geology was a science of such vast dimensions that it seemed to belong partly to the mathematical and partly to the natural history section of the association, and thus, as a link between the two, to be a theme of interest to all members. Here in the United States, we have a mountain chain of the most complicated geological construction—the Appalachian system. No mountain chain in the world has been studied by as many able observers at once—none of such magnitude has been as thoroughly investigated. Prof. Hunt proceeded to unfold some of the results of these investigations. Since Emmons announced his Taconic System lying beneath the rocks previously considered fossilliferous, these older rocks have been most carefully studied, and although the arrangements of Emmons has been overthrown, most remarkable facts in regard to the crystallic rocks have been established. The Appalachian system in the North, includes the Adirondacs, of New York, the Green Mountains and the White Mountains. The latter are composed mainly of micaceous schists that are softer than those of the other groups. It is now satisfactorily determined that they are the younger of the three, and have in a comparatively recent period been transformed into their present form from the condition of ordinary stratified rock. Next older than these are the Green Mountains, and oldest and hardest of all are the Adirondacs.

The transformation of stratified rock into these granitic and micaceous masses, the lecturer maintained and illustrated and expressed his belief in the doubtful fossil Eozone Canadensis that has been found in the crystalline rocks.

The event of Wednesday morning's session was a very interesting lecture on the geological history of the Mexican Gulf, by Prof. E. W. Hilgard, of Oxford, Miss. By the gulf, he meant the whole valley of the Mississippi below Cairo, to which point the gulf extended at the close of the coal period. The lecturer pointed out on his diagrams the changes that had taken place since that time until the gulf was re-

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duced to its present boundaries. He then dwelt particulary upon the vast areas in the south covered with drift. Bodies of this drifted material averaging 60 feet in depth, and covering the area of entire states was a fact that could not be overlooked or ignored. But its recognition required an entire change in the phraseology employed by northern geologists. By them the term drift had been restricted to deposits made by glacial action, and that which had been moved by water was called altered drift or modified drift. But these great southern deposits were part of the great stream that had swept over the continent, and were, he was confident, continuous with the northern drift, though they had been moved by water and not by ice. The deposits lay where they had been left by the great original movement, and were original drift. They were anything in the world but altered drift, and should not be called so.

Prof. Winchell, of Michigan University, stated that his own observations at the South had been sufficient to show that Prof. Hilgard's position was right. It was noticeable in Prof. Winchell's remarks that, while accepting Prof. Hilgard's strictures, the force of old habit was so strong that he continually used the term altered drift in speaking of the deposits which Prof. Hilgard said should never be called so.

Richard Owen, a veteran geologist, described having, years ago, camped for months in the region north of Lake Superior, from whence these drift materials had been obtained. Prof. Perry, of Harvard, said that he had studied the drift of New England until he knew the drift, and that in a recent trip in the South he had made a number of sections from the Atlantic and the Gulf to the mountains, and that Prof. Hilgard was right, it was true drift. Prof. Little, of Oxford, Miss., made some humorous remarks in regard to his study of the drift when a boy by striking rocks with other boys, and that he ever after that had a curiosity to know where the clear stones came from that served him so well by their hardness. That a few years later his professor in the Alabama University explained it to him, advancing some of the ideas that were now first publicly set forth.

In the afternoon session Prof. Cope read an elaborate paper on that intricate subject, the proper classification of fishes, followed by Prof. E. S. Morse on a genus of shell fish. Prof Morse admirably illustrated the most effective style of teaching—that which speaks to the eye as much as it does to the ear by the remarkable rapidity of his drawing. A few sweeping strokes always brought into view upon the board the shell fish or the bird of which he was speaking, before the sentence that described it was completed. Such a teacher irresistibly carries his audience with him.

Next came a paper by Mr. L. S. Burbank, on that doubtful and much disputed fossil Eozoon Canadensis. The writer exhibited a great variety of specimens from New England rocks, and concluded that it was not of animal origin. In this opinion he was strongly sustained by Prof. Perry, of Harvard. On the other hand, Dr. Hunt made an able speech to prove that the Eozoon was a fossil animal and not minute mineral forms. Prof. Hall, of Albany, and all the ablest geologists present, manifested the greatest interest in the discussion, but the question is one that cannot yet be decided.

At the same time section A was just as deeply interested in a question of greater practical importance—the probable introduction of the metrical system of weights and measures into the United States. J. E. Hilgard, Assistant Super-

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intendent of the United States Coast Survey, read a most interesting paper describing what had been done under governmental authority towards effecting this end. Forty sets of weights and measures according to this system are now in course of construction, and will next year be distributed to the different States. Mr. Hilgard's opinion was that the practical difficulties in the way of its general introduction were so great as to prevent its adoption. The general opinion of the members was that the experiment should be tried, and that there was great probability of its success.

The above are the main points of interest in the work of this most important gathering, previous to their excursion, on the 18th, to visit the coal fields of Indiana along the line of the Vandalia railroad Beyond this point our space will not allow us to follow them.

E. F. HOBART.

LETTERS TO A YOUNG TEACHER.

NO III.

My Dear Friend:

Let me advise you to keep your school-room neat and cleanly, and do what you can to render it pleasant and inviting. This I conceive to be of great importance. It is important, not only as regards appearance, order and comfort, but it is important in its *educational* effects. Children are keenly alive to all sorts of impressions, and it is wonderful how soon they begin to conform their habits and tastes to their physical surroundings.

Presuming that no janitor will be provided to take care of your room—in county districts all "house-keeping" is usualy done by teacher and pupils—you will need to adopt some plan regulating the sweeping, dusting, etc., so as to secure constant and uniform neatness. Unless you do this, your room will get into disorder, and present a slovenly and untidy appearance.

I would suggest that you appoint, each day, one scholar to attend to certain specific things in this line of duties; and it would be well perhaps to establish the order in which the duties performed should succeed each oth[illegible] For convenience, you might call this individual the monitress or monitor of neatness. Then you would do well to provide your room with a small neatly-made box, and name it the litter-box. Let it be one of the duties of the monitor to pass it through the aisles, just before the close of school, each half day, to receive the scraps of paper and other litter which may have accumulated on the floor about the desks, and which every scholar should be required carefully to pick up, and deposit in the box as it passes. This litter arrangement would lessen the labor of sweeping very much. It would save your room from much dust and dirt to insist upon having your scholars clean their feet before coming in. In a very muddy time, it would be well to require the monitor to stand at the door, immediately after the ringing of the school-bell, and remind forgetful boys of this duty.

The order and neatness of scholars' books and desks should receive some attention. You may have noticed a great difference in schools in this regard. In some, you will see the little geographies and readers neatly covered with cloth or paper, with leaves unsoiled and

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handled with clean hands; and you will not discover so much as the scratch of a pin upon any desk, or a pencil mark upon the white walls of the room. In others, you will witness the reverse of this,—books soiled and torn; some with covers dangling, others leaves falling out; desks hacked and mutilated, and the walls defaced by grotesque figures and scrawls of writing. Now this is wrong—entirely wrong—and I think teachers are chiefly to blame for it. I know not why it is, but the Vandal in boys is always more or less awakened when they get together in any considerable numbers, and they will make havoc with property which they would not think of injuring at their own homes.

You must manage to check this disposition in your scholars by creating a spirit which is opposed to it. A good way to do it, is to suggest some improvement looking to the better appearance of the room, or of things upon the premises, and get them to co-operate in carrying it into effect. Providing a new set of window-curtains, papering the walls, mending a broken-down gate, or something of the sort, would be examples. Boys and girls at school always enter upon such enterprise with enthusiasm; and when you have succeeded in leading their minds in this direction, all school property is safe in their hands Then I would appoint a standing committee, whose duty it should be to keep a watchful eye over these interests, and, at stated times, report their condition.

Encourage, as far as possible, the personal neatness and cleanliness of your pupils. Get up a penny contribution to purchase a wash-bowl, soap, comb and brush, if your room is unprovided, and you will be astonished to see how such an arrangement will improve the appearance of your little fellows who have been taught at home not to be afraid of a little dirt.

I will close this communication by saying to you that in all the plans you devise for the improvement of your school, endeavor to enlist the co-operation of your scholars. Without it, you can do nothing successfully. They must be made to feel that they have a personal interest in all the affairs connected with the school. Commend them in their efforts to do as you desire, and make it a rule to speak at least a *dozen* words of praise to *one* of censure.

Yours truly.

Cleveland, Ohio. A. J. F.

POPULAR FALLACIES.

It is a popular fallacy to suppose that mud flies from the wheel of a swiftly-moving carriage in lines tangent to the circumference of the wheel.

It is a popular fallacy to suppose "it is a poor rule that don't work both ways."

It is a popular fallacy to suppose that any one who is a fair scholar can teach school.

It is a popular fallacy to suppose that heated air has a tendency to rise.

It is a popular fallacy to suppose that a ball fired vertically upward will fall with the same velocity it had while rising. C. M. W.

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Editors' Department.

IMPRESSIONS OF CHICAGO AND HER SCHOOLS

(*Continued.*)

Leaving the office of the School Board, I visited a friend, who, being for many years a resident in Chicago, would, I thought, be able to put me in the way of seeing all that was to be seen. In this I was not disappointed. My friend invited me to spend the few days of my stay in Chicago at his house, and, on my accepting the invitation, took entire charge of my outgoings and incomings. I spent the afternoon with him at his house, in one of the pleasantest suburbs of the city, and I can testify that, notwithstanding the evil repute in which the Garden City stands for ill-assorted couples, there is at least one happy family in it. In the evening—at Rome we must do as the Romans do—I was taken to hear the Negro Minstrels, their entertainment being the most popular that the city then afforded. I am not particularly fond of the burlesque, but I was curious to see the kind of performance in which the Chicagonese take most delight. I have reason to suppose that the entertainment was one of the best of its kind, and certainly, if the wildest buffoonery and most grotesque ugliness are things which mark a high degree of culture in those who are entertained by them, if it was in every sense a success. Here more than anywhere else was salient what is everywhere apparent enough in Chicago—the absence of all idealism. I think it was Renan who said that the French were better suited than any other people to the dimension of this planet, that they were never really convinced of the vanity of human things, and used such expressions only because "elles se prêtent à de belles tournures oratoires." The same might be said of the Chicagonese even with more truth than of the French. In many regions the French have a certain idealism, ill regulated and of questionable tendency to be sure, but still a striving after a certain kind of perfection in art and life; whereas the Chicagonese appear to have no trace of idealism. The aesthetic conscience of the French rebels against utter buffoonery, and imperiously demands that everything shall be in good taste. Their great fault is that they are contented with the mere externals of taste and have no sense for the inner artistic which they replace by mere intrigue. Thus their productions have no hold upon eternity.

Perhaps there is no better index of the culture of a people or of a city than its amusements, and tried by this test, Chicago ranks very low. It must not be supposed that the Negro Minstrels are patronized by the lowest classes of society as they are with us, on the contrary the wealth and fashion of Chicago are largely represented there on all occasions. And what after all is the attraction? What is to be seen and heard there? Simply a number of men with their faces blacked, sitting in a semicircle on the stage, talking to each other, in an affected negro dialect and with affected negro accent and gestures. An endless quantity of half-extemporized nonsense, relieved only by bad puns, which has gone the round of the newspapers for years. The farces have no plots, and the caricatures no aim, except to make people laugh. And to have a good laugh the Chicagonese consider the height of entertainment, regardless of whether the object of it is such as to reflect credit upon their taste.

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It is an unpromising sign in a city when its population delights in mere buffoonery. There is wide distinction between this and comedy, with its ludicrous form and deep, earnest, inner purpose. The wildest buffoonery that ever was is not half so ludicrous as the productions of Aristophanes or Molière, and yet what depth of seriousness there is behind these! The Athenian might laugh at the *Clouds* or *Knights* of Aristophanes, or the Parisian at the *Tartufe* or *Bourgeois Gentilhomme* of Molière till he was tired; but when he left the theatre and went home, there rose another picture before him, just as, when you have gazed intently upon a white imp painted on a black back-ground, you turn your eyes to the white ceiling, you see the same imp, but was black against the white back-ground. The Athenian or Parisian did not recognize himself in the white imp, but when he found it transformed into a black imp, and meeting his gaze wherever it turned upon brightness, he began to question whether the black image was not in himself, and when he found it was, he had a theme for much earnest thought. But in our modern burlesques, for the most part, there is nothing but "sound and fury, signifying nothing," no ideality, no earnest satire even. And yet what a fine scope for Aristophanic comedy would our political system afford! How a comedian with an earnest purpose in him could lash our sausage-monger demagogues and tanner office-holders. But even our wit seems to be bought up in the service of corruption and dupery. So the Chicagonese take delight in the grimaces, uncouth gestures, and silly talk of a class of people for whom they have no better employment than that of barbers, and waiters, and boot-blacks.

On our way home from the scene of buffoonery we looked into three or four billiard saloons all in one block. These made me almost think I was in Paris, and indeed one of them is larger than any in Paris—not excepting the Café Parisienne. They were elegantly fitted up and seemed very largely patronized even at late hours. In one of them we saw a Frenchman perform some almost incredible feats with his *queue*.

On the following morning, after we had enjoyed a sound sleep and generous breakfast, my friend took me out for a drive through the city and environs. We were accompanied by a gentleman, who, being engaged in the real-estate business, was able to give me all information connected with the place. After driving through miles of streets, past acres upon acres of lumber, planing mills, slaughter-houses for hogs, we emerged gradually into the open country. And open enough it is—as flat as a sheet of water and almost as destitute of trees as the Sahara. Verily the Chicagonese are an enterprising people to attempt turning such a wilderness into a garden a they have done, are doing and will do. Indeed their enterprise is astounding, perhaps unequalled in the world's history. Thirty years ago the city was not, to day it is one of the most flourishing cities in the world. What was the growth of Rome or Carthage compared with that of Chicago?

Our route took us to the town of Riverside, whose rise is still *more wonderful*, if possible, than that of Chicago itself Three years ago, its site was "a wilderness where no man dewlt," now it bears an elegant town, with well-paved streets, gas, water, hotels, stores, and all the appurtenances of civilized luxury. Here is the abode of wealth and worldly comfort, where poverty dares not show its head. The company owning the land sell no lots except upon condition that dwellings costing at least $40,000 shall be erected upon them. On the

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whole, Riverside is a very pleasant place. If material comfort be the aim of life, this is Paradise.

Driving back to the city, we dined at one of the large hotels, and again commenced our drive through the city. This time we visited the water-works and Lincoln Park. The former are so well-known and have been so often described that I may pass them over with the remark that they are well worth seeing. Lincoln Park is more a thing of the future than of the present. That it will be laid out in a manner regardless of expense need not be doubted. At present it is in a very unfinished condition, part of it occupied by a graveyard, from which the bodies, many of which have lain but a few years, are being dug up to make way for pleasure-seekers. "The living alone have rights."

We reached home in time for supper, after one the pleasantest days I can remember to have spent. All that I had seen confirmed me in the conviction that the Chicagonese, if they do live to amass wealth, have nothing miserly about. They take as much pleasure in spending as in gaining, and, I am certain, that many a man who would haggle with you about a dime in a matter of business, would turn round and give you a hundred dollars, if he thought you needed it.

On the following morning I went about nine o'clock to the office of the Superintendent of Public Schools and found him already at his post. Without delay we proceeded to visit the institutions under his charge. The first we entered was a primary school, kept, temporary, in the basement story of a place of worship, built evidently when Chicago was young, more for use than ornament. The school was under the charge of a lady principal with several assistants, and though the number of small children crowded into the one large room must have amounted to many hundreds, there was everywhere order and stillness. Places were taken, and changed, slate-pencils destributed &c., without loss of a moment. The principal seemed mostly to superintend, her eyes were everywhere, but she spoke little, and then almost in a whisper. Many of the children had come into the school for the first time, and yet all looked as if they had been disciplined to silence and good behavior for years. In coming out, we found one class in a small ante-room taking its first lessons in reading music. The superintendent put a few questions to them, which they answered with great readiness, and without either bashfulness or forwardness. He spoke to me in high terms of the principal, and, to judge from what I saw she deserved great praise.

The next school we visited was a large grammar school with a male principal. We began at the lowest floor and visited one or more rooms in each. In every room I found the programme of work neatly written on the black-board. In one, where the children were very small, I inquired what was the use of putting the programme on the board seeing the children could not read it. The superintendent replied, "Let us see"—and we did—for even the smallest children read it at once, and not only it, but other writing that happened to be upon the black-board. I noticed here, as well as everywhere, that neither teacher nor pupils showed any embarrassment on account of our presence. The children, in the most natural way, looked at us when we entered, showing that their good behavior was not put on merely for effect, as it is in some places, where the the children are carefully warned not to raise their eyes when strangers enter,

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and where the discipline of a room is guaged by the number who do. As we ascended, the pupils were larger, but everywhere there was the same order and silence. In the principal's room I saw a drawing class, and heard some very excellent singing. The drawing was scrupulously neat, and what deserves all praise, it was of a kind calculated to train the hand and eye, and not to produce daub-copies of inferior pictures to please conceited parents. The piece sung was from Mozart, and was far from easy. But as the pupils are taught to read music from the very first, they soon arrive at great proficiency in this branch. I was shown a large number of copy-books, which left no doubt in my mind that writing there was carefully taught. The system, however, is essentially a bad one, and indeed the hand-writing throughout the whole country is being ruined by bad systems. American hand-writing, as a rule, even when it is neat and pretty, lacks both firmness and character—a fact entirely owing to the use of bad systems. In England, where very little attention is paid to writing, elegant, unadorned, firm, legible hands are far commoner than here, and Canadians I believe, write better than any other people.

The next school we visited presented few note-worthy features different from those observed in the last. Indeed, as I remarked before, there is a great effort made to rttain uniformity in every respect in the Chicago schools. Happening to be here at recess, I had an opportunity of seeing the whole school file out and in, and it was s sight worth seeing. They file out by floors, with the utmost regularity and order, and, although there were upwards of a thousand children in the building, the whole operation took less than four minutes. I had some conversation with the teachers during recess, and found them all interested in their work and in good humor with everybody. They had nothing either in a manner or speech to mark them as teachers, and, indeed, generally this fact was very remarkable in the schools. There was an entire absence of loud talking and professional tone. This, coupled with the remarkable order everywhere prevalent—I did not observe a single case of whispering—gave not a very unfavorable idea of Chicago teachers.

After recess we proceeded to visit the high school. On our way thither, I asked the Superintendent how they managed to get so many capable teachers. He said that a very large number of them had been pupils in the normal school, and that great care was taken in the selection of those admitted to it. No girl was admitted without a special recommendation from some principal, and principals were very chary about giving recommendations, since they were very liable to have the persons recommended returned to them as teachers two or three years after. The high school disappointed me. It is a small and very inconvenient building, altogether unworthy of Chicago. The stairs are badly lighted and the rooms have a dingy and uncongenial look. Only three of the four classes nominally belonging to the high school are kept in this building, the first or junior class being scattered all over the city, occupying single rooms in different schools, each under the charge of a single teacher. This arrangement, I think, is altogether bad, and ought tobe altered as soon as possible. Chicago could surely afford a decent high school.

I heard the two most advanced classes sing, and was present at three recitations in Latin, one in Greek, and one in

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English Literature. The singing was good, but not superior to what I had heard in one of the grammar schools. The Latin did not impress me, or rather it impressed me unfavorably. The pupils hardly ventured to pronounce the Latin, and, when they did, they used that most wretched of all pronunciations—the English. I ventured to remark to one of the teachers that since eastern colleges had rejected the English pronunciation of Latin, the high schools and academies would have to follow suit. He replied that the principal of the school was opposed to any change, and added that very little attention was paid to pronunciation. "When I was at college," he said, "no attention was paid to pronunciation; we were allowed to pronoonce any way we liked?"—a sad testimonial to some professor. But the fact was indubitable. After this, I was prepared for rather inferior work in other respects, and was not disappointed. To all the three teachers at whose recitations I was present, teaching Latin evidently meant drill in grammar, and even in that they were not very successful. The classes showed no interest, and failure was the order of the day. The Greek class was not very far advanced, and did net show much proficiency. The English pronunciation was used, and the written accent set at defiance. The texts books were Crosby's grammar and lessons—the former one of the worst and most inaccurate grammars ever published. I hope, now that Goodwin's grammar is published, there will be no excuse anywhere for continuing the use of Crosby's. The class in English literature, taught by a lady, deserved high praise, and furnished a most convincing proof of the superiority of the lecture system over that of text books. The period under consideration was that of Scott, Burns and Byron, and was not embraced in their text book. The teacher had given a lecture upon it on the day previous, and was now examining to see how much had been remembered. The result was in the highest degree satisfactory. Scott and Burns had evidently been rendered live personages; the salient characteristics of their works and style had been impressed upon the minds of the pupils, so that, altogether, these names meant a good deal to them. The attention here was thorough, and the interest manifested very great. At the close of this recitation, I was taken to see the chemical and other apparatus belonging to the school. As far as I was able to judge, the collection was a very good one. It was in excellent condition, and seemed to be well taken care of. I was rather amused, however, to find the same gentleman, whom a little before I had found teaching Latin, was preparing to give instructions in chemistry. Upon making a remark to this effect, I was given to understand that, in the Chicago high school, no attempt was made to assign special departments to particular teachers—the same teacher might be found teaching five or six different subjects. This explained a good deal to me. It is as true of teachers as of other people that a jack of all trades is master of none. There is a common saying in England that teachers are paid in inverse ratio to the number of subjects they profess to teach. It would be well if this were true in America. We might then expect to find some thorough instruction in the higher branches. There appeared to be a few minutes of recess at the close of each recitation, for what good purpose I could not ascertain. It seemed to cause a good deal of confusion, and to benefit no one. Instead of having the teachers remain always in in the same rooms, and the pupils file from room to room to recite, the pupils keep the same rooms and the teachers

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pass from room to room—a practice which abundant experience has shown to be attended with very bad results, which could be easily mentioned.

From the high school we passed to the normal school, but had time to hear only one class—in geography—recite. The recitation was conducted by one of the pupils, while the principal stood by and criticized. The scholars answered, for the most part, readily, but seemed more conversant with facts than principles. Here, more than elsewhere, I observed a tendency to teach pupils how to say things rather than to know them. This is a fault, however, common to nearly all normal schools.

Connected with the normal school is a model school, occupying three rooms, and with a special principal. Here the pupils of the normal school have actual practice in teaching before they are sent out to the schools to take charge of rooms. The principal does not teach, but passes from room to room, giving aid and suggestions to the novices. This seems a very excellent arrangement, and must, I think, be productive of much benefit to young teachers.

My visit to the model school closed my experiences in the Chicago schools. The superintendent, to whom I owe my warmest thanks for his many kind attentions, and whom I shall always remember as a gentleman who is entirely equal to the responsibility he has undertaken, drove me to the house of a friend whom I wished to visit. There we parted, intending to meet again at his office a few hours later. When I called there, however, he had not arrived, and as I could not delay, I lost the opportunity of expressing my thanks to him. As I rode to the house of the friend whose hospitality I had enjoyed during my stay, I tried to collect my impressions of what I had witnessed during the day, and came to the conclusion that, in Chicago, the primary and grammar schools had reached a very high degree of perfection—higher than in most cities—whereas the more advanced schools were inferior to those I had seen elsewhere. Perhaps the Chicago people, true to their immediate aims, set little value upon education for its own sake; and, as the grammar schools give nearly sufficient education for commercial purposes, the higher institutions are less valued, and hence less likely to be improved.

The same evening, bidding my friends adieu, I left for St. Louis, where, after a good sleep in one of Pullman's elegant cars, I arrived the following morning, fresh and hungry, and glad once more to see the red brick and coal smoke of the city of the Mississippi.

Reviews and Notices.

A DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. By JOSEPH E. WORCESTER, LL. D. Unabridged Edition. Boston: *Brewer & Tileston.* Por sale by E. P. Gray, 407 North Fourth street, St. Louis. Retail price, $10.

(*Concluded.*)

In objecting to Webster's Dictionary, as being too *American*, we would not be misunderstood. We do not wish, in any way, to limit originality, or insist on the advantages of imitation, in the case of American scholars. Far from it. We would have almost the same objection to a dictionary compiled and published in London, if it were distinctly *English;* though the land of Johnson and Walker and Smart might, perhaps, claim some priority in deciding a disputed point of orthoepy.

Dr. Webster says that his dictionary must be American, because there are many terms which, though still in use in Great Britain, are no longer heard in this country; and not a few which, either originated here, or have a meaning annexed to

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them quite different from that which they still bear in Great Britain. With regard to the first-class of words, it seems to us that there is need for their explanation in a dictionary intended for Americans, in proportion to the existence of the cause which Dr. Webster appears to regard as justifying their exclusion. If terms expressive of the deeds of chivalry and of the relations of feudal life be no longer familiar to the inhabitants of this country, (though we have no reason to think that such terms are much less known here than in England) surely the dictionaries intended for us, should be all the more full in elucidating the meaning of words which occur so often in the English classics. As we can not draw a line between English and American literature, we should not draw one between English and American dictionaries. With regard to the second class of words, we can not see how their introduction would make a work American, any more than the retention of those just alluded to would stamp it as English. Both classes of words should be found in every good dictionary of the English language, whether published in London or Boston; and no reference should be made in the preface to a feature, as a peculiarity, when only its absence could be regarded as one.

It would be, perhaps, difficult to show why there should be any differehce between the best American and English speakers, in regard to pronunciation. The difference of climate and of institutions can not necessitate it. It did, no doubt, in old times, as it did much more; but there are now two causes in operation which present such a result: First, an intellectual and personal communion of English and American thinkers and speakers; Second, the fact that the English language is now in a tertiary state. The Greek language was split up into dialects; but those who spoke them were almost completely isolated. The Pan Hellenic meetings at the Olympic and other games, and the more frequent recurrence of the Dionysiac festivals went far towards maintaining a unity of national sentiment; but it naturally failed (indeed it was never meant to succeed) in maintaining a unity of language. When the Greeks dispersed to their respective state, there was practically a much greater distance between Athens and Pella; and between Sparta and Halicarnassus than between New York and London; or between St. Louis and Liverpool. It is not, therefore, strange that individual communities developed in language, as in every thing else, without much modification from the corrective influence of their neighbors. But the case is far different with us, English book-stalls are filled with American books; English Hotels with American travellers, English houses with American visitors; and certainly this country is not less quick in inviting attention and in repaying it. There is no reason, then, why the mere fact of living in different countries should in any way tend to produce a difference in our language.

It is shown by philologists that the tertiary state of a language is more permanent than the secondary, just as the secondary is more permanent than the primary. This permanence is, of course, an etymological one; and is consequent upon the substitution of distinct parts of speech to indicate the relations that were before expressed by a system of terminational suffixes. There is great room for dialectical variation in a language which retains its etymological luxuriance. Ἐρίζειν, ἐριζέμεναι, ἐρίζεν ἐρίζεμεν are but infinities of the same verb. If we take the corresponding infinitive "to contend," we shall see at once how the use of the separate word "to" limits the possibility of divergent orthographical development in the verb. Now, where there is orthographical permanence there is little temptation to a change of pronunciation; (the change of pronunciation by which the less significant syllables of a word are gradually lost; such a change as must have occurred in the Latin language, as may be seen by a comparison of French words, and in many cases, of Italian and Spanish with the Latin ones whence they are derived, we do not here take into account. It is not a change with which we are concerned,) and we object to any thing which tends to introduce it.

Now, while there seems no necessity for a difference of pronunciation between the two countries, it is very noticeable that a difference exists. "I's," whether they are initlal, or in an initial syllable, are generally sounded here like the "i" in pine; as philosophical, Italian. The "u" is also sounded almost uniformly as "oo"; and this, by so many and such respectable speakers, that, very probably it will soon become the received pronunciation, under the sanction of custom. It cannot be predicted how far this tendancy may carry us, if we yield to the mania of reformation; and whatever may be the result we cannot be very wrong in ascribing it to the influence of Webster's Dictionary. We cannot, as we promised, consider the propriety of omitting one "l" where it was betore usual to retain it. We have indicated our opinion; but we ask what was gained by pronouncing "clerk" with "e" sounded according to analogy? There is no more reason than would exist for altering any abnormal sound; and though the change may be reasonable enough *in itself*, we cannot regard it in itself, or lose sight of the far-reaching consequences of its introduction.

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We can now address ourselves to a part of onr task where there can not be much difference of opinion. The omission of the authorities can not be looked upon as improving Webster's Dictionary, either as a work for scholars or general readers. The supplying some of them in the beginning where lists of words whose pronunciation is not fixed, is given, ccmpensates for this deficiency, to some extent. The space devoted to the pronouncing of "modern geographical" and of "modern biographical names," is twice as great as that in Worcester; and this is of great utility. But the "Explanatory and Pronouncing Vocabulary of the Noted Names of Fiction," is a very favorable feature. Ripe scholars may not require it; and the infinitely larger number of self-sufficient pedants may affect to disregard it; we have found it of great use; and we suggest that some others may derive slight profit from its perusal. Too many people make ludicrous mistakes in pronouncing the commonest names in literature. For a long time it was difficult to be always correct without very extensive reading; it is now easy, and we highly prize the means by which it is so.

We need not premise with the statement, that "Nothing is perfect," when we say that in the "Greek and Latin proper names" there is a little to find fault with. Some names, by no means uncommon, are omitted. The omission of one "Mandane" is peculiar for two reasons: first, it can be pronounced in two ways; and secondly, it may be thought when not given to be the same name as "Mandanes," just as "Melicert a" and "Melicertes," are different forms of the same proper name. "Hyperion," has only its classical pronunciation given; though in the English poets the accent is found on the antepenultimate. Only one way of pronouncing "Aegina," is given. We are not told that "Andronicus" is not used with the accent on the penult in modern poetry. These three cases are the more remarkable as we are very properly reminded that Campbell throws back the accent of "Wyoming," in his celebrated poem. We only remark, in conclusion, that we would prefer Webter to Worcester, if it were not for our conservatism as to the forms of language, But as we are conservative, we decline to do more than imply our opinion, and say in the prudent language of the ancient shepherd:

"Non nostrum inter vos tantus a componere lites."

St. Louis. H. I. D'ARCY.

FIRST STEPS IN MUSIC No. 3. By GEO. B. LOOMIS. New York: *Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.*

We heartily welcome the third book of this admirable series, which, though promised some months ago, has thus tardily made its appearance; regretting, however, that those pupils who had so bravely worked their way through Nos. 1 and 2 could not have had the pleasure of completing their school year with this uprightly musical companion. Recurring to the previous works—a review of which appeared in the January No.—we find that No. 1, teaches the staff, scales and easier skips, two kinds of notes and rests, one kind of measure and three different keys or positions of the scale, in one hundred progressive songs and lessons. In No. 2 triple and quadruple measure, additional notes and rests, the upper and lower scale with more difficult skips, various dynamic marks, and one key are introduced. No. 3 commences with a summary of the different musical terms thus far learned—twenty-two in all—and then follow fifteen pages of music introducing two new keys and twelve new signs and definitions. Eighth notes and rests follow, and here we have an ample field for musical frolic and improvement in the twenty-four pages of songs, rounds and exercises that follow, using six different kinds of notes, but chiefly eighths and quarters. We next learn sextuple measure and the representation, by figures, of all the different varieties of measure; also sixteen notes and rests, requiring thirty pages of sprightly music, several of which are in the solfeggio style. We notice selections from Hullah, Kreutzer, Von Weber, Topler and others. Two part singing is introduced on page 74, and nearly all of the remaining songs and lessons are in two parts.

Relative and absolute pitch, with the F. and C. clefs close the book, which numbers 142 pages, and contains 11 rounds, 65 songs and 180 exercises. Taking our estimate of what constitutes a fair elementary musical education, we should say, that chromatic and minor scales, with corresponding tunes and lessons, transposition of the scale—theoretical,—(for in practice that was taught in the first book) signatures, three and perhaps four part music, and a few other subjects remain for No. 4. With the exception of chromatic intervals and minor music, we do not see why a class that has gone through those three books should not take up any common singing book, as Song Garden, Normal Singer, Carmina Sacra, etc., and sing nine-tenths of the tunes correctly at the first trial; but the steps have been as easy, natural and progressive as they are in learning to read. Music, vocal and instrumental must be taught as reading and grammar are, from the simple to the difficult; from the practical to the theoretical. There is no good reason why our pupils should not generally learn

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to sing by note, and we hope that Superintendents, Principals and teachers of the common branches, as well as music teachers, will give this series of music readers a careful examination, believing, as we do, that they are based upon natural principles, and that they furnish sufficient material for practice to make the study of vocal music, in schools and classes, pleasant and profitable.

St. Louis. H. M. BUTLER.

A SUPPLEMENTARY CATALOGUE OF WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, with a general description of the apparatus used and the methods of instruction followed, &c., &c. St. Louis: E. F. HOBART & Co., Printers, 704 Chestnut street.

The conditions and prospects of this Institution, as shown by this Catalogue are most flattering:

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, founded in the city of St. Louis, under an Act of Incorporation by the State of Missouri approved February 22, 1853, comprises several Departments, and is intended to embrace the whole range of University studies, except Theology, and to afford opportunity of complete preparation for every sphere of practical and scientifie.

The present members of the Corporation earnestly desire that the University should attain a high moral and religious character, as a Christian institute in a Christian republic; but they equally desire that the narrow principles of sectarianism and party spirit may never be allowed to enter.

Nearly a million of dollars have been spent. The result is a University which, although young, does not hesitate to claim the support of St. Louis, and the whole West. Certainly there is now no need of going abroad for educational facilities of the best kind. With our excellent systems of public schools, upon which, after all, all institutions for higher education must mainly depend, and on which, as the foundation, they must build, and our thoroughly organized and successful colleges and professional schools, St. Louis and Missouri can rightfully demand of citizens that they shall practically endorse and encourage their home educational institutions.

The Polytechnic Department of the Institution has recently grown to grand dimensions.

The new west wing of University Hall, 100 feet long by 46 feet deep, and five stories high, is entirely devoted to this Department. Besides this magnificent building, there are: a Chemical building, a Dormitory, and a small Astronomical Observatory.

The Apparatus is very extensive, $15,000 having been recently donated to increase it.

The Chemical building contains three Laboratories, beside a Lecture Room, and two rooms for Assaying and Industrial Chemistry. Students who propose to become professional chemists, will spend almost their entire time during their third and fourth years in the Laboratories.

It is intended to make the Physical Labratory a very importent item in the study of Physics. A large room, about forty-two feet square, on the second floor will be appropriated to this use. All the physical apparatus will be arranged in cases round the room. Large tables will be fitted up for the purpose of enabling the students to perform certained assigned experiments in Mechanics, Pneumatics, Heat, Optics, Acoustics and Electricity. They will go to different tables to perform different experiments, and whenever a series of similar experiments are made, the results of observation will be compared with the theory by the graphical method of curves. Students will be encouraged to perform original experiments, and old experiments by new methods, and in all cases great pains will be taken to secure carefully written reports of all the work done.

The headquarters of the State Geological Survey are located at this institution. It is here that the examination, classification, analysis and assay of all the minerals, rocks and ores collected by those engaged in the geological survey are made. The State Cabinet, which has already attained such proportions as to be of much value to those pursuing the study of Geology, or any of its cognate sciences, is in one of the spacious rooms of the University, and at all suitable times will be open for the use of students of the University.

Text books written by the most skilful and accomplished masters, on every branch of human learning, are so accessible, and so superior to the expositions of even the best lecturers as the object of study, that the "lecture" system, as the term is generally understood, is very little used in this Department. The first Teachers of America, England, Germany, and France, are, therefore, the teachers in this University. The professors can only direct the students in their study, explain difficult points, seek out illustrations of all important principles studied, add, now and then, something from their own or others' investigations, and restrain those who would learn imperfectly or superficially. But, perhaps, the most important function of a professor in a technical school is that of assisting in harmonizing Theory and Practice. Theory is one thing; Practice has often been regarded as another and quite a different thing. The professor must show that they are the same; that is, he must show, that that is imperfect theory which does not

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so take all the data of a practical problem into account as to give the exact result obtained by practice, so far as the result is correctly observed; and he must teach also how to interpret practical results when obtained. The University requires of her professors, substantially such work as is pointed out above. She would graduate students not only well-grounded in theories, but ready, and skilful, and accurate in practice.

Hence advantage is taken of the excellent opportunities offered in St. Louis and vicinity, for the study of applied science. Through the kindness and courtesy of railroad officers, engineers, commissioners and business men in general, both professors and students have had free passage over railroads, on expeditions for scientific purposes; easy access to all engineering works in process of construction, whether bridges or water-works; and ready admission to machine shops, foundries, rolling mills, furnaces, and manufactories of all kinds. These visits and expeditions have proved to be of great value, the tendency of such combination of study and observation, being to rear not mere theorizers, but practical, far seeing business men.

In this connection, reference should be had to the agreement made by the Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, to authorize the organization, every Summer Vacation, of a Surveying party, consisting of the civil engineering students of this Department, under the charge of a competent officer, for the purpose of performing the secondary triangulation of the State of Missouri. (The Observatory on the University grounds has already been made a point of great importance in the primary survey). In this work, although the pay is small—about a dollar a day and "found"—it is an excellent opportunity to earn *something*, and learn the details of the very best surveying practice in the world.

Education at Home and Abroad.

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' CONVENTION.

This convention met on Wednesday, the 22d, at 10 o'clock A. M., and the members were called to order by the President, Mr. J. L. Pickard, of Chicago. After a few preliminary words he introduced Gov. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, who welcomed the delegates from the various States in the following terms:

ADDRESS BY GOV. BROWN.

"*Ladies and Gentlemen of the Association:*

In the name and behalf of the people of Missouri I desire to extend to you a most cordial, hospitable welcome. They appreciate the compliment your selection indicates of this, the Great City of the West, as the focal point of educational labor, and I am sure that intercourse with our scholars and our citizens generally will elicit great sympathy and encouragement in your work. Indeed, I shall not go too far in saying that nowhere in the Valley of the Mississippi will you find more of interest centering in the cause of *right* education than here. The public schools of the city of St. Louis are models of efficient organization and munificent foundation. Its universities, academies and many of its private institutions, are exciting attention in distant quarters by the extent of their curriculum and their admirable management. And then, again, the State itself has been liberal in provision, and scrupulously faithful in maintaining its trust, to offer the means of education to every child within its border. A large permanent fund stands safely invested to that account. Former donations from the General Government have been turned over to county custody for the same purpose, and, although laxly cared for in the past, are now being scrupulously retrieved. The latest land grant from the nation, one of splendid proportion, has been placed under a wise and prudent management that bids fair to realize its utmost value. A well-grounded State University, an Agricultural College, an Institute of Mines and Metallurgy, together with two large and well-appointed Normal Schools, are already organized, and, in addition to the private furtherance of education, eight thousand teachers of the public schools are now faithfully laboring in the sub-districts of our State to convert into usefulness all this appliance. When I add, furthermore, that notwithstanding the burdens incident to late civil strife, and the successful restoration of our financial condition under great difficulties, one-fourth of the entire revenue of Missouri is annually, and by constitutional clauses, set apart for purposes of general education, you will perceive that it is a subject which commands, here, at least, the most noteworthy attention. Not only is the schoolmaster abroad in our

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land, but we do not intend to let him starve in the vocation."

The rest of this speech was, doubtless well-intended, but it displayed a very great lack of knowledge in regard to the aims which education at present pursues and the efforts made to promote moral education. The speaker laid himself open to the very just rebuke that was administered to him by General Eaton in the afternoon. Mr. Pickard replied to Gov. Brown in the following terms:

We have come together from all parts of this nation with common interests and with common desires. The words you have given us affords us much for good subjects of thought. It was my fortune to receive an education in the good State of Maine, with which Missouri has for years past had some connection, but the yoke upon the States was a yoke of separation. The work which you have done in this State in years past has been instrumental in severing that yoke, [cheers], and now they stand as sisters, hand in hand, and not as a pair yoked apart. We hope for the same throughout all the States of this Union, and it affords us joy to know the part that you, sir, have had in this work. We thank you again for the welcome which you have given us, and while our friends remember they are as scholars abroad, we are sure, from what we have learned of this State and of this city since our coming here, that you will all make us scholars at home. [Applause.]

We come together, ladies and gentlemen of the National Educational Association, at this, the noon time of our year's work, to rest in the shade and to take our ease. We come bringing to our intellectual feast good solid bread and butter. The college men will bring us some dried roots, but with it all some spice; the Normal men will teach us how to serve it up, and the superintendent will see that no one gorges himself at the expense of the others. [A laugh.] This is not a four-headed or five-headed organization that has come together today. There are questions of vital importance to us to be discussed. Many of them have been so well presented that no repetition need be made. What is mainly before us is the question that is agitating the world, a now less important question than "How shall we be educated?" We invite you to discuss these questions. We invite you to discuss them freely. No sneer will break down arguments that are used even by those that would have man descended from animals, to which we may have some aversion. Earnest thought must be awakened, deep study must be had. We cannot ridicule these thoughts out of existence. We invite you all alike to participate in the good food that may be prepared for you. I think I shall be sustained by the association in saying that the programme will be followed implicitly in general, so far as it is within the bounds of possibility to follow it.

It gives me pleasure as President of the Association to introduce to you those who will preside over the several sections of this Association, and in doing so I take pleasure in introducing first the President of Kenyon College, Ohio, Mr. Eli T. Tappen, to preside over the branch of higher education, and these gentlemen as I introduce them will fill out what is lacking in any part of the President's address. [Applause.]

Short addresses followed from the Presidents of the different sections.

Hon. John Eaton, Jr., United States Commissioner of Education, read an essay on superior instruction in relation to universal education, a portion of which we subjoin. Want of space prevents us from presenting the entire essay, which possesses great merit and elicited frequent applause:

ESSAY BY HON. JOHN EATON, JR.

If the mathematician say correctly that the angle of the apex includes every atom contained in the out-spreading base and uprising cone, then we, as educators, may fitly say that superior instruction, using the term loosely, meaning by it that imparted in the college, the professional, normal, technological schools as they now exist, crowns and includes in its relations all the education of the human race.

Limiting ourselves to our country, we discuss here our superior instruction as to the education of all our people. It should be premised that we do not set a fixed value upon education to be uniform in all cases, nor confine it solely to the work of intellectual culture, but allow it to signify, as it does in popular use, all that variety of training and development enjoyed or suffered by the various individuals in the country, however perfect or imperfect they may be. Every individual makes some progress from his condition at birth; this may be termed his education, whether right or wrong. We are apt to speak of education as improvement —we desire that it should be always; but nature has a law in man's being that allows no standing still, and if there is no betterment there is growing worse, and if we predicate education of the latter, it must be progress in evil.

The parent savage is more a savage than his child at birth. Indeed infancy, alike in Christian civilization and in barbarism, has much in common; the departure is chiefly education. No individual soul can be an exception; all are bound by it, all illustrate it. Every child born among us will have

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some education in good or evil. Adults must say which it shall be, and determine its agencies. Conl template our fnllen nation: a certain number alive in 1860 had received instruction in colleges, professional, normal and technological schools. Our discussion comprehends the relation of the instruction they received to their education, and to the education of all the other people.

Such a statement involves a distinction between the instruction imparted by the professor and the use made of it by the student, and this use of education allows the term to signify just what the rearing, the development of the individual is, whether greater or less, though generally less.

We must pass the relation of superior instruction to those who receive it directly with but a word. Very few of them gather its full import; too often it is addressed only to the bright scholar. It is as if brilliant intellectual action alone was sought without regard to attendant evils or the good of the mass of students. We are reminded of the conversation between Sir Astley Cooper and the surgeon-in-chief of the French empire, who asked him how often he had performed a certain wonderful feat of surgery. He replied that he had performed the operation thirteen times. "Ah, but monsieur, I have done him one hundred and sixty times. How many times did you save his life?" continued the Frenchman, after he had looked into the blank amazement of Sir Astley's face. "I," said the Englishman, "saved eleven out of the thirteen. How many did you save out of one hundred and sixty?" "Ah, monsieur, I lose dem all, but de operation vas very brilliant."

The superior instruction that is lost in these brilliant but fatal experiments is without power to rouse the powers of the greater number of students. They gather certain good from the tuition of their associates, certain undefined effects from the atmosphere of this instruction; but for the great awaking they have to wait till Providence brings them into the work of life. Besides, there is a tendency to confide this instruction to the letters of education, and to address it to the literature of thought, not to the use of it, the weaving of knowledge into the warp and woof of life. All the attainments it some times requires may be made by a capacity to perceive, remember and express, functions of mind that may go on in a condition of insanity, or of vice and crime. This kind of acquisition has been misnamed education, and pointed out as that to be sought after by the young. This bookishness, this parrot-culture, never should satisfy the superior instructor.

His instruction should be the best, for the best developed of all the excellencies possible of body, mind and character of every one that comes under his influence. No limitation to a few, or a faculty, or class of faculties will suffice.

In visiting some of our colleges and observing their bad architecture, the filthiness of halls and recitation rooms, the disregard of the conditions of health, of the barbarous customs prevalent among the students, one would almost come to the conclusion that these and the like offenses against nature and good sense were essential concomitants of this instruction.

The duties of educated men, so often, so elegantly portrayed too, it should be noted, as we pass, is not the subject of this discussion. Indeed, superior instruction from the living teacher is not unessential to learning.

Providence has other ways of producing learned men and women. Indeed, the whole work of life may be greatly, nobly done, and the college or lecture room never entered. These are only aids, shorter methods, snbstitutes for the longer, more tedious and more uncertain way of attainment without formal instruction. However we exalt the import of this instruction, we must not set it down as indispensable to every case. Trees will grow wild, but pruned and grafted yield better fruit. Mind may be great in science without formal instruction, but with instruction it becomes scientific, better and easier. Remembering these things, we choose to confine our remarks to a subject more limited even than the duties of educated men in reference to universal culture, to a point, a responsibility back of this, that of superior instruction, moreover not dwelling on the obligations of the taught in reference, save as these are included in the instruction imparted to them, and is merged in those of the instructor; for the students of this grade are powerful for the success or failure of the professor's endeavors, and are to be held in joint responsibility.

Men set themselves apart to give their *superior* instruction. It is the last formal aid of the teacher to the greatest votary of science, author, statesman, editor, lawyer, clergyman, engineer, teacher. Elementary and secondary instructors have performed their part; the one has planted the seed, bent the twig; the other has continued and extended the work. Here in the superior department, to use another figure, the steel is tempered and polished, and finally gets set to its uses, uses that could not be foreseen definitely when the ore was taken from the mine, nor till the special separation for its own purpose, its adaptation began to appear in the series of preparatory processes. Whatever the elementary and secondary processes of training may do to give firmness of grain, strength of fiber, purity,

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compactness, shape; this last imparts finish and sets to use. The student goes directly from this instruction to the work of life. He comes to it from the level of human ignorance. He starts where all childhood stands—at the base of the cone of human intelligence; he is brought by the steps of instruction forward, until from this he receives his last aid in approaching the apex of human culture. Having reached his special apportunities, he is labeled A. B., Ph. D., M. D., and so forth, and set to do for others. He is to be a teacher in knowledge and its uses, in brain work and moral work. However others may come to the same attainment, he is supposed to have come with the least possible waste, friction and mistake; to be in the best condition of health, strength, vigor—in a word, of capacity for enduring the conflict. From the innermost depths of his own soul, and following the flaming torch of truth, he is to push his way through life. As Sybel observes: "Whatever course he may pursue in after life, whether he be liberal or conservative, reactionary or progressive, orthodox or heretical—whatever, in fact, he may be—the essential point is this: that he is whatever he is, not from any mere force of habit acquired during his youth, not from any indistinct sentiment or traditionary obedience te established authorities, but from scientific conviction, critical examination, independent self-determination."

In whatever profession he labors, he becomes the example of education; he is pointed at by numbers as meaning what it is, what its benefits; and if he is a failure, how little the best instruction can avail, if good sense, good purpose and industry are wanting. Thus the work of the professor becomes greater beyond the lecture room than within it; his students as examples are before all the members of this great body politic, the public, who, as regards education, we have chosen to speak of under the figure of the cone. All others look to these and are affected by them. Thus these students do not make all our books, our discoveries in arts and science, do not edit all our newspapers, make all our bridges, do not adjudge and execute all our laws — by no means; yet they do constitute a sufficient proportion of the brain power which performs all these functions, to shape and determine the character of each, and as their instruction in higher learning determined their characters, so it also is the primary cause in shaping the effects which flow from these great agencies. Superior instruction as the head, the chief formal teaching must be held responsible for all other grades. It informs the teacher of the country, it makes the text-books, it unfolds science and art.

Elevating influences come from above. In the physical world the sunbeam, so delicate, so silent is the medium through which the vast changes and material activities on the surface of the earth are effected, and which have so much to do in determining the habits and comforts of mankind. So the human heart expects spiritual good from above. Intellectual improvement is no exception. A Socrates from his height of attainment radiates his light down the path of the ages to all ranks of men; so much more an association of equally great men, or an institution, that shall, from generation to generation, instruct and rear those great lights of the race. Is it too much to say, therefore, that this instruction, as the highest human aid to the young, may fitly be called to account for the condition of all the people of the land, as respects intelligence and virtue?

If any section or class is neglected, excluded from letters, or shut up in ignorance, may we not justly hold superior instruction accountable? Either it has done its work, or has done it badly. and private schools is remarked upon to the disparagement of the former. But abolish the public schools, and note the effect. An immediate and enormous advance of tuition and other expenses would certainly follow. Take away the ubiquitous and gigantic competition of the public schools, and the old monopoly prices would be restored as sure as that human nature will remain unchanged till the millennium.

MR. J. P. WICKERSHAM,

of Pennsylvania, delivered an address on "National Compulsory System of Education Impracticable and Un-American," in which he reviewed a bill introduced during the latter part of the last session of Congress by Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts. The discussion of the bill in Congress, he said, and the comments on its subject matter by the press, exhibited a sentiment in favor of some such system as that contemplated. The defeat of Mr. Hoar's bill does not settle the question; its future consideration is probable. and it well becomes this body to give it due consideration.

Mr. Wickersham then examined in detail the nineteen or twenty sections of the bill, which, speaking generally, provide for the appointment, by the President, of a State Superintendent, who limits the number of schools in each district, which are leased or purchased under the direction of the Commissioner of Education; all teachers are employed by local superintendents. A direct tax of fifty million annually is directed for school purposes, assessed and collected just as the internal revenue.

The speaker opposed such a measure on the grounds that the establishment of such a system is

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in opposition to the uniform practice of the national government; in opposition to the views of the founders of the republic and the leading statesmen of the nation; is of doubtful constitutionality, and in opposition to a sound Republican, political philosophy. Mr. Wickersham reviewed the condition of things at the South, out of which, he said, arose the idea of the bill. In view of that state of affairs, let Congress judiciously aid the South in the efforts it is now making.

Wednesday morning was occupied by section meetings of much interest. Wednesday afternoon the association convened and listened to an admirable address by Hon. Newton Bateman, which was as follows:

"How far may the State provide for the education of her children at public cost?"

The question as it reads, is not hard to answer. A State "may" provide for the education of its youth, so far, and only so far, as its common school laws, fairly interpreted, will permit. School officers may not transcend the prescribed limits, whatever they may be.

But if I may consider the inquiry as tantamount to this: How far should the State assume the work of education at public cost? In this form the question goes directly down to the fundamental principles of civil government—to the bed-rock of political science. It confronts us at once with the question: What is a State? Of what materials constructed? How constructed, and how put in the way of surest and healthiest growth and development? If there is political wisdom in the words of the poet—if

> "Men, who their duties know,
> But know their rights; and knowing dare maintain."

"If these constitute a State; then have we a safe criterion at the outset of this discussion. We have only to ask, what and how much education is needful to make such men as are thus declared to constitute a State, and how much of this should the State itself provide? The needs of the State, as such, are the just measure of its obligations in this matter; and these needs will be many or few, great or small, according to the nature of our conception of what the State should be. Our conception of it cannot be other or less than that of a free republican commonwealth, in which the agency of all is the means, and the happiness of all is the object, of government. As there is no liberty without law—no justice without a supreme rule of right—such a commonwealth is grounded, of necessity, first, upon those universal and immutable maxims of truth and right which underlie the thought of Christendom; and second, upon a clear translation of those fundamental maxims into the forms of written constitutions and laws. These must be understood, to be of any worth in the maintenance of the State—understood by all, to be of highest worth, of absolute saving power to the State. But how can they be understood except they be read? How understood by all, except read by all?

Here, then, begins the duty, and of course the right and power, of the State in the matter of public education; upon this broad foundation abides, and will ever abide, the initial prerogatives of a commonwealth in respect to the instruction of its people. It must teach its children to read. It must see that this key to almost all acquisition (ability to read), is in the hands of all its youth. It is a primal necessity of its organic life, viewed from the stand-point of political philosophy and of history. And as the achievement of this object is vital to the State, and therefore cannot be left to the caprices and contingencies of individuals, or even of associated effort and enterprise, the State itself must undertake and carry on the work. It is too gigantic for private capital; too momentous for the mischances of private judgment The commonwealth, in its strong and benign sovereignty, must stretch forth its arm and do this thing.

Hence, the common district school, wherein a knowledge of the orthography, and of the reading and writing of the vernacular language of the country is the principal thing, to which are added the science and art of calculation, and the few other rudimentary branches properly related to the central study, and usually included in the common district schools of our country. Up to this point there is no essential difference of opinion, that I know of, among those who believe in public education at all. Thus much, it is conceded, the State can and should do for the education of her children, at public cost. But, while what has now been said does not touch the really debatable portion of the field involved in the question we are to discuss, it does, I think, throw some light upon it. Indeed, if there is any clew to guide us through, and out of the mazes of vagueness and uncertainty in respect to this matter, it must be found, it seems to me, in the application of the admitted and established principles already referred to. The State provides for all, at public cost, the rudiments of an English education, because it is to her interest to do so; because so much, at least, of knowledge is essential to the welfare, if not to the existence, in the long run, of a popular form of government; and because experience proves that such provision cannot safely be left to the voluntary action of the individual citizen. By parity of reasoning, the claims of public high schools to a settled place in the educational provisions of the State, are also established.

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The commonwealth needs, through all her manifold industries and enterprises, many thousands of persons who have more than the rudiments of knowledge. The supply of persons of such advanced culture, through the private institutions of the country, is not equal to the public need, and hence the State should interpose to supplement the work. The same may be said, with even greater truth and emphasis, of that profounder learning, that higher and wider culture, which it is the province of the university to bestow. The loss which nearly or quite all the commonwealths in this republic sustain, because so few of their young men are qualified to act as leaders in the discovery, development and utilization of their wonderful natural resources, and in lamping the people onward and upward towards a worthier and grander civilization, is, I believe, simply incalculable.

The amount of latent and dormant power; of wealth-discovering and wealth-producing energy; of beauty-loving and beauty-inspiring taste and skill, that lies concealed and slumbering in the brains and hearts and hands of the keen, shrewd, capable, but untutored millions of our youth, is beyond computation. Now, over all this unreclaimed but magnificent intellectual and moral territory, over all these minds and souls and bodies, with their untold possibilities of good, the State has, in my opinion, a sort of right of eminent domain, and not only may, but should exercise it in the interest of her own prosperity and dignity. If he who makes two blades of grass to grow where but one grew before, is justly entitled to the name of public benefactor, of how much greater honor shall he be counted worthy who gives to the world a trained and polished intellect for blind and stupid ignorance? Is not the one blade of grass thereby multiplied an hundred fold? To do this on the grand scale of the whole body politic, by providing common schools for all, and high schools and universities for as many as desire to enter them, I believe to be the unstrained prerogative and the manifest duty of the State. But, in addition to the argument derived from the nature and functions of the State as a supreme political corporation, the view that public education should not stop with the common district school, is supported by other considerations:

First—The common schools themselves are the better for the public high schools, and the high schools for the university. The high school is to the elementary, what the upper classes of a graded school are to the lower—a sharp and perpetual incentive to assiduity and effort. I will not say that without the spur of the high school the common schools could not be kept up to a paying standard of excellence, but it is very safe to say that they would deteriorate in spirit and efficiency, even with greatly increased energy and vigilance on the part of the teachers. As quickeners of the common schools, down through all their various gradations, high schools are of very great value.

Second—As to the rights involved, I do not see how the State can logically or equitably limit its provisions to the rudimentary schools. To do so is to stop at precisely the point where, to the poor man, the question of expense obliges him to arrest the further progress of his children. The cost of tuition and accessories, in good private institutions, corresponding in grade to public high schools, is, to the masses of persons in indigent circumstances, simply prohibitive; so that to them the public high school is the only means of bestowing upon their children anything more than a mere elementary education. And when we come to the college and university courses, the doors are still more closely barred against them.

The effect of this is to erect and perpetuate those barriers between the affluent and the indigent, which every consideration of justice and of political prudence requires should be removed—to create, in fact, an aristocracy of learning, in addition to that of wealth, which is already the just opprobrium of our country. It seems to say to the children of the poor: "Thus far, but no further. Your utter mental nakedness shall be decently covered with homespun, but the purple and fine linen of culture are not for you. No matter how great your natural abilities, how intense your longings to enter the upper sanctuaries of the temple, you must stay in the basement. Of bread and milk you shall have an abundance, but at the tables of the gods you must not sit." It seems to me that too little is commonly made of this view of the case. By eliminating the high school from the system, the State misses the most precious and princely returns for the bounty already bestowed—it withdraws its hand just as the harvest is ripening for the sickle—remanding to eclipse many and many a youthful intellect just rising to the plane of perpetual day, and of unending growth.

Nor is the luxury of learning, under the free high school system, a bounty to the poor, bestowed upon them by the rich, as is so confidently asserted. Into every dollar of tax paid by the property-owner, has gone a fraction from the brawny arm of the laborer, and from the weary brain of the salaried clerk and manager. This process, whereby capital lays its special burdens upon the poor, upon labor, may not be seen or acknowledged, but it goes on all the time and ev-

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erywhere, sure as fate, inexorable as death. Tax the wealthy employer to support the high school, and the employee must pay a portion of that tax in the form of lower wages, though his own name is not to be found at all on the books of the assessor. When the millionaire's check lifts an invoice of carpets from the custom-house, and an elegant Wilton or Moquette comes to brighten our parlors, do we say that he has paid the "duty"? that to that extent the luxury is a *largess* to us? Not so. We know that in the form of "profits" WE have paid the duty for the merchant prince, and a portion of his accumulating wealth besides. So the laborer, one of the factors in the product of human industry, gives to property, everywhere, a large share of its value, pays a part of its taxes, and contributes to the fortune of the capitalist. If in this business, therefore, there is place for gratitude on either side, it is certainly in the hearts of those who, in God's providence, are permitted to accumulate wealth from the sweat and exhaustion of the multitudes to whom the common lot has fallen. And I think we may thank God that there are not a few grand natures, unhardened by prosperity, who rejoice that it is in their power to acknowledge and fulfill their obligations, in some little measure, through the cheap and beneficent agency of free public high schools.

It is still further to be said, in this direction, that the poor make greater sacrifices in merely dispensing with the needed services of their children, especially at the age when high school studies are entered upon, than do the rich in the payment of the heaviest taxes ever imposed upon them. The money value of the services of his sons, which many a poor man cheerfully foregoes in order to give them the benefits of the high school, is often greater than the taxes paid by the rich in cash for the maintenance of such schools. Well do I know what a painful struggle it often is between poverty and parental love before the decision is made. And shall not these people have some of the credit due to those who add to the number of intelligent citizens?

And, then, the poor who have a little property, pay their share of the taxes. The amount may be small; but in proportion to their means, it is equal to that paid by the wealthiest. But there the analogy ceases: To the rich, the public high school is a matter of comparative indiference; the best private institutions are within their reach. But to the poor, the boon which comes with that pittance of tax, is treasure indeed. Close the public high school, and they are almost wholly without recourse. There is practically no danger that the number of high schools demanded, will increase so rapidly as to alarm the economist and the tax-payers. It is remarkable how steady the ratio remains between the number of high school pupils, and the whole number of scholars, in a given city or State Despite the exhaustless attractions of the higher walks of learning, and the increased opportunities of pursuing them, the percentage of those who choose to enter them does not materially vary from year to year; taking as a basis the entire enrolment. But the point is that a very large proportion of high school attendance is clear gain to the cause of learning, and to the country. That is, without the public high school, at least one-half (I believe three-fourths), of those attending, would have stopped with the rudiments; some from indifference, the most from inability to enter private institutions.

Third. There is another consideration bearing upon this question: The effect of public high schools upon the cost of tuition in private schools of like grade, and more especially upon their character, and standard of excellence. This influence is very great, in both of those directions; much greater than is generally imagined. In fact, I am not sure that the retention of the public high school might not be successfully argued, as a measure of public economy and utility, on those two grounds alone.

The cost, per capita, of education in the public schools is often criticised, and the smallness of the difference in cost between public and private schools, is remarked upon to the disparagement of the former. But abolish the public schools, and note the effect. An immediate and enormous advance of tuition and other expenses would certainly follow. Take away the ubiquitous and gigantic competition of the public schools, and the old monopoly prices would be restored as sure as that human nature will remain unchanged till the Millenium.

But even more potent and imperative has been the effect of public schools, especially public high schools, upon the literary character of private schools of like nominal grade. It has swept through them like a hurricane, blowing the chaff and pretense to the four winds. Every good public high school takes the breath clean out of half the sham academies and select private schools for miles around, and forces the rest of them to "new departures" in scholarship and thoroughness, with all speed. This is a great and positive public benefit—one with which we are all familiar, and which cannot be questioned.

I believe, then, in conclusion, that the question for American statesman is, not how little, but how much can the State properly do for the education of its children; that the one thing most precious in the sight of God and of all good men, is the

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welfare and growth of the immortal mind, and that to secure this, legislatures should go to the verge of their constitutional powers, courts to the limit of liberality of construction, and executives to the extreme of official prerogative.

I believe that an American State may and should supplement the district school with the high school, and the high school with the university, all at the public cost; exhibiting to the world the noblest fruitage of the century—a model free school system.

And when at the head of the long line of educational forces there stands, as sooner or later there surely will stand, a great National University, fitly symbolizing the culture, refinement and dignity of the great republic, then will our system of public education be indeed complete—*totus teres atque rotundus.*

Mr. Wm. T. Harris, of St. Louis, followed with an able Paper on the same subject.

The meeting then proceeded to the election of officers, after which the members accepted the invitation of the citizens of St. Louis, and proceeded in carriages to Shaw's Botanical Garden, where the day was spent in recreation.

The following are the officers of the National Educational Association for the coming year:

President, E. C. White, of Ohio; Vice Presidents, W. T. Phelps, of Minnesota, and one from every other State represented; Secretary, S. H. White, Peoria; Treasurer, John Hancock, Cincinnati; Counselors, J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania, C. C. Rounds, Maine, and twenty-four others.

As a whole, this meeting of the association has been most delightful and successful. The attendance has been very large, and the best talent in the country has been called out. The division into section meetings has proved very happy in its results. The members go away better satisfied that they have accomplished their work than is usual in such cases.

The London School Board has agreed upon a general scheme of education proposed by Prof. Huxley. The scheme includes three classes of schools, infant schools for children under seven, in which the sexes are to be mixed,—junior schools for children between seven and ten, in which boys and girls may be taught either together or apart, as seems most desirable in each locality, and senior schools for children between ten and thirteen or upwards, in which the boys and girls should be taught separately; the junior and senior schools to be organized, as far as possible, on the large scale for schools of 500 each but the infant schools not to exceed 250, or 300 at the most. Sixteen teachers are to be allotted to a school of 500, one head, four certificated assistant teachers, and eleven pupil-teachers. The schools are to be open generally five hours daily for five days in the week.

Corporal punishment is not to be absolutely forbidden, but it is never to be inflicted by pupil's teachers, aud never at all without the sanction of the head-master, and its frequent use will regarded as a sign of a teacher's incompetence. Scripture with explanations, music, and drill are to be taught in every school.

Mrs. Carson, formerly of Jacksonville, Ill., who has been for six years the assistant principal of the High School at Beloit, Wis., has been elected preceptress of the female department of the University. Mrs. Carson's rare ability as a teacher, her fine culture, her quiet dignity and grace, her force of character, and the depth and strength of her love for truth and right, have left an abiding impress for good on the minds and hearts of her former pupils, and cannot fail to win for her the confidence and regard of the friends of the University.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* thinks that the great need of the country is not schools of the fine arts, but of the mechanic arts; schools to train boys and girls to earn a living. The great educational problem is how to hitch school education to the great necessity of labor. And one of the greatest labor problems is, how shall the rising generation learn the trades they must follow for a living?

OFFICE OF CO. SUPERINTENDENT,
ST. CHARLES CO., MO.

By virtue of the authority conferred upon me by the school law of Missouri, and by the conditions of the certificate in this case given, and because of drunkenness and other sufficient causes to me appearing, and believing that the public good and official duty alike require it, I, Charles Beckington, County Superintenpent of Public Schools for St. Charles County, State of Missouri, do hereby revoke and cancel the certificate of Leonidas E. Mayer, a teacher now in the State and County aforesaid. Said certificate bears date June 7, 1871, being of the second grade, given for the period of six months from the date thereof, and signed by me as County Superintendent of said county. From and after the date hereof no public school funds can be lawfully paid to the said Leonidas E. Mayer for his services as teacher until he shall become the possessor of a legal certificate. This revocation is published for the benefit of all school officers and the public generally, who may be deceived thereby, because said Leonidas E. Mayer declines to return said certificate to me as requested.

CHARLES BECKINGTON,
July 8, 1871. Co. Supt.

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Our New School Register

is the result of much care and attention devoted to its preparation after experience of the needs of the school room. It is the best work of the kind ever published. It is neatly ruled and printed upon the first quality of papar, and bound in the best manner, three quarters morocco, with cloth sides. Size 3 will record the attendance, deportment, and standing in all their studies of 75 pupils for three terms of four months each. Size 1 will record 75 pupils for 15 terms of four months each. This is the largest and best bound book we publish, and decidedly the cheapest for a large school.

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is designed to collect the records of each month's work of each scholar, so that they can be easily referred to and permanently preserved. Special pains has been taken to simplify the calculation of per centages, and reduce the number of items so as to avoid unnecessary labor on the part of the teacher, and its advantages will be found to more than compensate for the labor involved.

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Our Monthly Report Card

is characterized by the same avoidance of detail as the ledger, and this fact enables a teacher to use them who can find but little time beyond that required by his daily duties. At the same time it is found in practice to be equally efficient. It is furnished at the very low price of 50c per 100.

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Many teachers find it much more convenient to give tickets than to mark their scholars. When rightly used the ticket system is an effective stimulus to the scholar and greatly lessens the labor of the teacher. The higher prizes are handsomely ornamented.

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No. 15, " .....

No. 20, " .....

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Reward Cards, in cheap colors, per doz.....

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Dr. R. V. Pierce, of Buffalo, N. Y., sole proprietor of Dr. Sage's Catarrh Remedy, whose name is printed on the wrapper of the genuine, has, for over three years, offered, through nearly every newspaper in the United States, a standing reward of $500 for a case of Catarrh in the head which he cannot cure. That he has treated thousands of cases and had no claims presented for the reward, from any one who has made thorough use of his means of cure, is strong and conclusive evidence that he possesses sure means of curing this loathsome disease. The Catarrh Remedy is sold by all druggists or sent by mail on receipt of sixty cents.

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WOODWARD BOOK STORE!

SCHOOL, MEDICAL, MISCELLANEOUS AND JUVENILE

The Form for Monthly

Which constitutes the second part of this Register, is a marked publication. A systematic posting of records to this table will give greatest value to the teacher and the school. The manner of using readily understood from the annexed example.

SUMMARY OF RECORDS OF Pine Hill School, FOR TERM *Commencing Jan. 4, 1871.*	First Month.					
	No. of half days absent.	No. of times tardy.	Attendance.	Deportment.	Scholarship.	Standing.
HENRY FIELD.	5	5	83	97	85	88

The form for monthly reports, which we furnish at fifty cent shown in the right-hand margin. They are designedly of the simpl so as to relieve the teacher from unnecessary labor; at the same the surest check upon the pupils by appealing to their regard for th their parents. The report may be made out directly from the register number of half days absent in the second example to have been five : tardy, 5. Each half day is one-fortieth, or two and one-half per ce month. Therefore the five half days will require, discarding the fracti twelve from the standard of attendance. Also deduct one from the stan for each tardiness, making a total deduction of seventeen, giving the att in per cent., eighty-three. The register shows three marks for errors in per cent. of deportment is therefore ninety-seven. The scholarship f per cent. The sum of the three per centages divided by three gives th eighty-eight.

Next turn to the table of Summaries and transfer these figures t and the teacher has a permanent and systematic record of each scholar, t he will not fail to appreciate.

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somewhat upon the strictness of the teacher in suspending pupils; and

II. *Because* it allows a different margin of registration for sick pupils from that for others, and again makes a difference between those who are absent intending to return and those who withdraw without such intension.

AND WHEREAS, it is desirable to have three items in the record of school attendance entirely independent of the strictness or laxity of the teacher, and free from all arbitrariness whatsoever, to-wit;

1. The total number registered or enrolled from the beginning of the scholistic year, without reference to the length of time, members of school, or whether present members or not, *minus* those received by transfer from other schools in the same system (*sc.* city or township); and

2. The average number of those in daily or semi-daily attendance, counting together the number present each day, and dividing the sum by the total number of days in the given time; and

3. The average daily or semi-daily "number belonging," an item embracing not only those in actual attendance, but those reasonably expected—the actual attendance *plus* those temporarily absent.

[NOTE (1.) The total enrollment compared with the actual average attendance shows the irregularity of population and the insufficiency of zeal or means on the part of the people at large to continue their children at school the whole scholastic year.

(2.) The average number belonging compared with the average daily attendance shows the temporary irregularity, and indicates the strictness of discipline on the part of the teacher, the moral tone of the pupils, and, to a large extent, the prevailing tone of the community.]

For these reasons BE IT RESOLVED, that there be three items kept in the record of attendance, and that each of these items be kept carefully distinct from all records intended to have a disciplinary effect.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that instead of the present method prevailing for the item of *average number belonging*, the following method be adopted:

That in all cases of absence from school, whether with the intention of returning or not, whether the case be occasioned by sickness or other causes, including suspension of the pupil, but excepting solely the case of transfer to some other school in the same system; that the pupil's name be kept on the roll as belonging for three whole days, and dropped uniformly, in case he does not return on the seventh half-day.

Brief resume of principles—1st. "How to improve attendance," should be kept separate from "How to get statistics." 2d. There must be a margin sufficient to show temporary irregularities. This margin should hold and exhibit the effects of all withdrawals from school, of whatever kind. 3d. Careful attention should be paid to regulations regarding transfers.

In a speech at the Amherst College Jubilee, Henry Ward Beecher took strong ground in favor of the admission of women to the benefits of collegiate instruction. If there is one thing, he says, in which America stands pre-eminent, it is that women shall be educated according to the measure of her desire and capacity. The only question that remains is as to whether we shall have two sets of instructors, one for men and one for women? Mr. Beecher said he could see no reason for doubling the cost of education. True economy, to say nothing of other considerations, demands that women should be educated with men, thus doing away with the necessity for a multiplication of academies and colleges. As to the objection that woman cannot bear the experiences of a collegiate course, he said that, in his opinion, she can stand the college if she can stand the nursery.

Mr. Beecher added: "I know it is settled that women are different from men. Of course they are. I know it is said that they cannot do everything that man can do. I do not want them to. If youi plant a rose tree and lilacs in the same ground, the plants and flowers will bear their respective flowers and foliage. So from a collegiate course a woman will take that which assimilates with her own nature, and be a woman still, aud not a womanish man. I was brought up in my sister's school at Hartford. That accounts for my womanish ways. But it is all outside, for I am inside a man. A woman would make a womanish use of this education, and that is what I want to see, a woman's influence brought to bear in art and literature; it is to make her more a woman, and with her power she will still be womanly pure. Highly developed in culture, her refining influences will be richer and more heavenly."

Special Notice.

"There was a frog who lived in a spring,
He caught such a cold that he could not sing."

Poor, unfortunate, Batrachian! in what a sad plight he must have been. And yet his misfortune was one that often befalls singers. Many a once tuneful voice among those who belong to the "genus homo" is utterly spoiled by "cold in the head," or on the lungs, or both combined. For the above mentioned "croaker" we are not aware that any remedy was ever devised; but we rejoice to know that all human singers may keep their heads clear and their throats in tune by a timely use of Dr. Sage's Catarrh Remedy, and Dr. Pierce's Golden Medical Discovery, both of which are sold by druggists.

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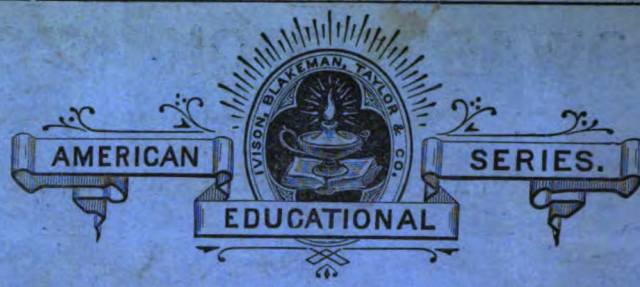

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"Advance sheets of 'Swinton's Condensed United States' have for some time been in the hands of leading educational men of this city, and we but express their unanimous opinion when we say that this manual marks an era in School Histories. It contains many technical points of novelty and superiority which teachers will readily appreciate. It is clear in its style, sensible in its tone, and impartial and catholic in its spirit. The palpable merits of the book will be its own sufficient recommendation."

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